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Library Trends

*Current Trends in Newly
Developing Countries*

WILFRED J. PLUMBE, *Issue Editor*

October, 1959

Library Trends

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Introduction

WILFRED J. PLUMBE

THE ARTICLES in this number of *Library Trends* have been written in seven countries; they deal with all kinds of libraries in territories that girdle the earth. Six of the contributors are practicing librarians engaged in the day-to-day struggle to consolidate libraries and librarianship in newly developing countries; they—or perhaps it should be written “we”—are therefore biased, partisan, and emotionally committed. The other five contributors have intimate knowledge of the areas concerned but they write from the Olympian heights of the Library of Congress, the Library Association, the University of London and the University of Illinois, and they are consequently more objective, impartial, and apodictic. Only by first providing surveys of library activity from librarians personally involved “on the spot,” assembling information which has not been juxtaposed or reviewed elsewhere, and then considering certain topics of primary importance to *all* newly developing territories, has it been possible to discern and identify the trends in development that exist.

The terms “underdeveloped” or, more politely, “newly developing,” are often applied to countries in which the per capita income is less than \$250 (or some lower figure) a year. Personal incomes were not used as the basis for the present survey, but a more general scope was adopted, paying special attention to territories which are “newly developing” in the political sense.

Much of this number is concerned with libraries in the tropics; it could, in fact, form the starting-point for a future “Handbook of Tropical Librarianship.” Today, libraries exist under the coconut palms of tiny West Indian islands, in stilt villages far up the rivers of Thailand, in oil exploration camps under the Arabian sun, at oases in the Sahara desert, as well as in territories such as India which have a long tradition of libraries. In newly developing tropical countries (excluding schools) there are already not less than 75,000 library service

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points. A special publication devoted to tropical librarianship is a major need and becomes—especially to library schools in tropical areas—daily more desirable.

Rapid growth of library services in newly developing territories has resulted from increasing awareness within the countries concerned of the necessity for libraries, and has been fostered from outside by international organizations and other agencies. In countries such as Indonesia, Ghana, and Israel, where there have been strong nationalist movements, the impetus has come from within; libraries have come to be regarded as the spearhead of new social forces attacking lethargy, ignorance, and poverty; it has been recognized that economic advance stems from books just as certainly as it stems from electric power stations. In other countries, such as French West Africa, Northern Nigeria, the East Africa High Commission Territories, the Netherlands Antilles, and the British West Indies, libraries have resulted from the mildly beneficial administration of colonial powers.

Everywhere, the most potent factor leading to the establishment of libraries has been economic compulsion: the need for two stalks of rice instead of one; the need for educated citizens. The Soviet Central Asian Republics have long realized this. India, Japan, Egypt, Argentina, Cuba, Singapore, the Eastern Region of Nigeria, Turkey, Panama, and many other countries, are now trying to catch up. The masses of Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America may not yet realize how libraries can change their lives but there is increasing awareness by educationists, politicians, scientists, and all species of administrators, that library services in academic institutions, schools, research organizations, and to the community at large, are fundamental to most other activities and provide the basis for beneficial change. This increasing acceptance of "the library idea" in newly developing territories is the most important general trend that may be discerned.

Much credit for helping to create this attitude towards libraries must go to Unesco. As one of the contributors in this issue remarks: "Of course, people cannot appreciate what they have never had the opportunity of appreciating, but once a book service is offered there is abundant evidence that it will be used." Unesco has been influential in establishing libraries of all kinds but it is the public library pilot projects at Delhi, Medellin, and Enugu, that have demonstrated most dramatically the latent need for books and acted as revelations in the countries concerned. Equally important is Unesco's work in organizing

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the production of books in vernacular language in heavily populated South Asia.

Growing help from "outside" constitutes a clear trend in development. The United States Information Service and British Council libraries, although small and limited in scope, have greatly exceeded their ambassadorial and propagandist functions, and appreciation of them is worldwide. The Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas, operating from a London office, gives advice, recruits librarians, and has established a photocopying service second to none, for universities and university colleges in territories under its aegis. Various technical aid programs, assistance generously given by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the Ford Foundation, the Asia Foundation and other philanthropic organizations, the cooperation of the American Library Association, the Library of Congress, the Library Association, of agencies such as the United States Book Exchange and the British National Book Centre, and help from individual libraries, have all been vital. To many librarians at work in newly developing territories, it seems important at the present time to establish high standards in selected libraries and convince authorities locally responsible for funds that they are receiving a first-class return for money invested in them; it is felt that strong official support should then be forthcoming for all libraries. But in the heart of Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East, where enlightened public administration may not be taken for granted, it is still most difficult, sometimes, to establish adequate standards of book provision, library buildings, staffing, and personal service: and it is here that advice and solid financial aid from "outside" have been, and in future can be, invaluable.

Unesco and other agencies have temporarily made available to newly developing countries the services of librarians with experience in other parts of the world. Surveys of library conditions, and analyses of needs, have been made by these librarians and other visiting experts. Eventually it will be necessary for newly developing territories to become independent of personnel from other countries. Tens of thousands of librarians are required and they will be produced not in the United States or the United Kingdom but in new schools of librarianship in India and South America, in Ankara, Kharkhov, Jerusalem, Cairo, Ibadan, Port-of-Spain, Djakarta, and Manila. Again, it is important that high standards should be achieved. Library education must be based on a wide subject background. Whether this back-

ground can best be acquired by reading for a degree in a relatively narrow field, or by acquiring superficial knowledge of more subjects as a result of practical experience in a general library, is a matter that is best approached without dogmatism; answers must depend upon the educational systems and intellectual standards that prevail in individual countries. One point that sometimes needs to be stated in newly developing territories where degrees in library science are not granted is that librarianship is now a complex study the academic content of which is equal to that of a reputable degree course. Whereas in the past librarians were often scholars in subjects other than librarianship, it is now possible for some of them to be regarded as scholars in the field of librarianship.

Some of the finest major libraries built in the past fifteen years have been erected in Algiers, Dakar, Accra, Legon, Ibadan, Enugu, Kampala, Salisbury, Pretoria, Rehovoth, Peradeniya, Rangoon, Singapore, Hosei, Manila, Mexico City, Rio Piedras, Kingston, Medellin, Bello, Sao Paulo, Caracas—and this list is by no means complete. To design buildings with strict regard to function, climate, local insect pests, and with proper cooperation between architect and librarian, is now not so much a recognizable trend as normal practice. Modern concrete technology has given a certain international style to library architecture but there is more difference and contrast than one might expect.


Many millions of books continue to be housed in premises that were not designed, or intended, as libraries; in them, if protective measures are not taken, the books are certain to deteriorate as a result of the action of insects, micro-fungi (moulds), or dust. Relatively few libraries elsewhere are afflicted by dust as librarians know it in the Middle East countries, the Sudan, Northern Nigeria, and parts of India, but in many countries insects are enemies and micro-fungi a "fifth-column" which can be shown no mercy. The trend is to air-condition libraries and to abandon old, messy, and dangerous ways of insect and fungi control when they can be replaced by treatment with modern chemical compounds.

Librarians in the West sometimes forget that the languages of Europe are not universally used. In some newly developing countries there is a strong and understandable feeling that literature of all kinds should be made available in local languages. Book production in vernacular languages, however, has not kept pace with world growth in literacy even although much publishing of a fundamental nature has been achieved by government literature bureaus, commercial firms,

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Christian missions, international organizations, and other bodies. Until a much greater range of publications in such languages as Arabic, Hausa, Swahili, Nyanja, Chinese, Hindu, Hindustani, Urdu, Gujarati, Cinhalese, Tamil, Indonesian, Malay, and Thai, becomes possible, the development of "popular" libraries, in countries which have not adopted a European language as "official," will be only a pipe-dream. Book shelves will remain empty and readers, especially children, will have to be turned away because there are not enough books available.

Readers of the following pages will quickly realize that libraries of newly developing countries evince almost infinite variety. At one end of the scale is the extraordinary skyscraper municipal library of Sao Paulo, and at the other the few shelves of brown-paper-covered booklets in an unlit thatched mud hut in Chief Kalindawalu's village in Northern Rhodesia. One thing is heartening. Over most of the world books are going out from central service points to users by every possible means: bookmobile, traveling library, train, bus, mammy-wagon, aeroplane, canoe, river steamer, bibliocart, bicycle—even by camel and on porters' heads. The human story behind all this effort will never be told, or it will be titrated into statistics. It is a small, not very noticeable, part of the saga in social history through which we are living. It has been epitomized by a tribal African who once remarked to the present writer: "*The day of the spear has gone; the day of the book has come.*"



Patterns of Library Service in Asia and the Pacific Islands

HEDWIG ANUAR

ASIA IS THE LARGEST LAND MASS in the world, with such a variety of nations, cultures, peoples, and languages that any unifying pattern in terms of library service is difficult to define or to establish. That part of "Asia" dealt with here excludes the Asian republics of the U.S.S.R., Afghanistan, and Nepal, but arbitrarily includes the Pacific islands which are, of course, not part of the continent at all. Within the countries in this area the most significant event is the political and social revolution which is taking place at this time. The political revolution is characterized by the drive towards freedom and self-determination which has resulted in the emergence of Asian nations, particularly since World War II, as newly independent nations of the world. Today, only a few pockets of colonial rule remain in this part of Asia—Hong Kong, the British Borneo territories, New Guinea, and the Pacific Islands under United Nations trusteeship which are administered by Britain, France, Australia, and New Zealand.

The other revolution under way in Asia has been termed "the revolution of rising expectations." Almost universal poverty is the great economic problem of Asia, which contains more than half the world's total population. Yet the average per capita output in the area as a whole was estimated to be about one hundred dollars in 1955, less than one-twenty-third of the per capita output in the United States. Populations are rising because of the introduction of western standards of medicine and public health. The average length of life is only thirty to forty years, as compared with about seventy in the West. Only 60 to 65 per cent of the population is able to read and write.

Until recently, most Asian peoples accepted these conditions as in-

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evitable facts of life, but now this is changing. There is growing realization that poverty—and with it, misery, sickness, illiteracy, and all the other components of a submarginal existence—is an enemy that can be fought and overcome, given the proper training and tools to do so. People feel that governments can and should make this conquest of poverty their prime purpose and that if old organizations, cherished customs or social patterns stand in the way of this, then it is economic progress which must come first and let the rest—even liberty itself, perhaps—go hang.

It is only in this context of great political and social upheavals, of explosive ideas struggling to gain acceptance that one can understand the extent to which education is regarded as the key to the fulfillment of the hopes and aspirations of the people. Only education can provide the newly developing countries in Asia with all the knowledge and all the technology that has so far been achieved in the more advanced countries of the world. Thus libraries in Asia, together with schools, universities, and other educational institutions, start off with the advantage of popular and enthusiastic support from the people they serve.

Besides, libraries in Asia are not new; they are among the oldest in the world. The first library in China is said to date from the sixth century B.C. and from then on each dynasty had its own imperial library. Libraries were reserved for high government officials and nobles, but after the invention of printing in China and particularly after the printing of the classics had been completed in 953 B.C., private libraries became increasingly numerous. In India libraries were religious in origin and also in Ceylon, where each Buddhist monastery had its library of palm-leaf manuscripts bearing mainly on Buddhist literature. In Japan libraries have existed from the period of the first temple libraries (529-710). The early eighth century saw the growth of governor-training libraries and later, of noblemen's libraries.

But the concept of a modern public library service, administered by local and central governments with public funds and freely available to all, is one that only recently has gained or has still to gain acceptance by both governments and peoples in Asia. In particular, the concept of a national library and its relation to a national library service is being re-examined in the light of existing conditions with the result that the functions of a national library are being extended beyond those usually regarded as essential in Western countries.

The Unesco Seminar held at Delhi in 1955 on public libraries for Asia concluded that a national library "should collect all literary and related materials concerned with the nation, both current publications under copyright deposit and historical materials; be a conservatory of materials concerned with world culture and the natural main source in the country of such materials for scholars and research workers; act as the authority for the compilation of the national bibliography . . . ; serve as the focal point and organizing agency for national and international interloan of books; and . . . be the organizing centre for national and international book exchange."¹

National libraries in the sense of copyright deposit libraries exist in most of the Asian countries in this area. The oldest appears to be that of the Bibliothèque Nationale at Saigon, founded in 1882, which contained nearly 70,000 volumes in 1951. Other national libraries are the National Library of Cambodia, Phnom-penh (over 20,000 volumes in 1951) and the National Library of Vietnam, Hanoi (over 100,000 volumes in 1952), both founded in 1917, and the National Library of Thailand in Bangkok, founded in 1905, containing about 86,000 volumes.

China's National Library in Peking was founded in 1912 as the Metropolitan Library. It not only operates a loan service for government institutions and organizations (as also does Japan's National Diet Library) but also operates postal services for factories, mines, state farms, army units, schools, and other libraries as well as a mobile library service for the peoples on the outskirts of the city. Like the other national libraries in Asia, it is also the center for interlibrary loans and for exchanges with libraries in other countries.

More recent are the National Libraries of India, Japan, and North Korea, all established in 1948. The present National Library of India, formerly the Imperial Library, was formed by the amalgamation in 1902 of the Calcutta Public Library (founded 1836) with the then Imperial Library (founded 1891). The National Library shares copyright deposit privileges with three other libraries at Bombay, Madras, and Delhi, and is the foremost repository and research library in India. Under the able leadership of Sri B. S. Kesavan, who was appointed librarian in 1950, its activities have been extended to transform it into a vital and actively creative center of national culture. Among its important achievements are the compilation of a *Bibliography of Indian Anthropology*, the first step towards an ambitious Bibliography of Indology, which will cover all aspects of the cultural

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achievements of India. It also publishes the *Indian National Bibliography* which is compiled by the Indian National Bibliography Unit using the resources and premises of the National Library. The National Library also provides facilities for the courses in librarianship conducted by the Bengal Library Association and the University of Calcutta. Among its important future projects are the publication of a classified catalog of Indian government publications and the construction of a Readers' Hostel enabling distinguished scholars from outside Calcutta and abroad to stay for a short time for purposes of research.

The National Diet Library, Tokyo, Japan, is also one of the most active national libraries in Asia. It controls the twenty-nine libraries of the various government departments as its branch libraries, which together form a Branch Libraries Division. This division provides interlending and exchange services among the departments, compiles catalogs and has published a union list of government publications. Closely modeled on the Library of Congress, the National Diet Library is also the only national library in Asia which issues printed cards (since 1950) for books received under the copyright law and distributes these cards to Japanese and foreign libraries. It also publishes a Japanese national bibliography and monthly indexes to periodical articles.

The City Library of Pyongyang was promoted to National Library of North Korea in 1948. In addition to reference and international loan services, it organizes practical courses for workers in public libraries and publishes handbooks for them. Its Bibliographical Department is working on a bibliography of classical Korean literature and a *Survey of Korean Bibliography*, of which volume one appeared in 1955.

The Liaquat National Library of Pakistan was created in 1951. Its work is hampered by the fact that it is at present housed in temporary premises and has not yet received copyright privileges.

In Indonesia the functions of a national library are shared by Perpustakaan Sedjarah Politik dan Sosial (Library of the History of Politics and Government) which includes the Library School and the National Bibliographical Centre, the Museum Library (the largest library in Indonesia, with more than 500,000 volumes), the Library of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Library of Parliament, all situated in Djakarta. The National Bibliographical Centre, founded in 1953, publishes the national bibliography, *Berita Bulanan*. A deposit

law at present before Parliament will give the Centre the right to receive free copies of all books and journals published in Indonesia, which it now receives on a voluntary basis.

Hongkong University Library, the National Taiwan University Library and the University of Malaya in Singapore Library also act as national libraries in the sense of being copyright deposit libraries. Burma is planning a national library with Unesco's help which will form part of a national cultural center in Rangoon.

Youngest of all the national libraries in Asia is tiny Singapore's Raffles National Library established by law in 1958 (though its existence as a subscription library dates from 1823), which embodies all the provisions for a library recommended by the 1955 Unesco Seminar. It is unique in being both a national and a free public library as well as a bibliographical and book exchange center. This feature is also in keeping with the recommendation of the 1955 Seminar that "in some countries, particularly smaller countries, the functions of the national library and the central library board should be integrated for better and more economical development."²

While national libraries in Asia have made a promising start, public library development varies considerably. The main requirements for a national public service are that it should be authorized by legislation, open to the public without charge, adequately financed by public funds, administered in convenient units for efficient control, and staffed by trained personnel. A survey of Asian libraries soon reveals that some, if not all these requirements are lacking. Library legislation, where it does exist, is generally not on a national level. Many ostensibly "public" libraries are actually subscription libraries or charge deposit fees. Inadequate funds are an obvious problem in poverty-stricken Asian countries, and with these go inadequate premises and poor quality book stock. The public library structure is generally characterized by a lack of over-all control and the existence of small, uncoordinated and uneconomic units. Lack of trained library staff is a recurrent theme in Asian libraries.

Adding to these difficulties are the sheer physical immensity of the task of bringing libraries to some of the largest and most highly populated countries of the world and, on the other hand, to tiny and remote thinly populated villages and islands cut off by mountains, forests, and rivers from the urban centers; to countries where roads do not exist or are impassable for certain parts of the year; where ingenious methods of transporting books by boat, lorry, cart, or

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bicycle have had to be devised; and where electricity has not yet reached into every home and books must be read by candlelight or kerosene lamps, if at all.

Other important factors are the overwhelming predominance of illiteracy in Asian countries which enhances the value of audio-visual materials as a forerunner to the full use of a public library service; the need for the provision of adult yet simple literature for new literates who would otherwise lapse back into illiteracy; the problem of multi-racial and therefore multi-lingual populations with insufficient literature in the vernacular or newly established national languages; the need to serve rural populations in what are still largely agricultural countries; and finally, the age distribution which is typical of an underdeveloped country in which children under fifteen years of age account for an unduly high proportion of the country's population, for example, over 42 per cent in Thailand, over 50 per cent in Singapore, making services to children an essential provision of library service.

Yet, in spite of these formidable obstacles and problems in the way of public library development in Asia, some outstanding achievements have taken place. Perhaps the most spectacular of these has taken place in Indonesia, where the establishment of the public library system is generally recognized as the most important feat of Indonesian librarianship. Indonesia consists of about three thousand islands which would reach from San Francisco to Honolulu if their extent (750,000 square miles) was transposed to the eastern Pacific. It has a population of over eighty-two million, about 80 per cent of which was estimated to be illiterate at the time of independence.

It was in connection with the drive against illiteracy that the Public Library Service began its activities by supplying reading material for the new literates and the general reader. All public libraries are administered by the Mass Education Department of the Ministry of Education, the Department being also responsible for literacy and adult education programs. At the beginning there was no staff trained in library administration and distribution on a nationwide scale, yet the government took the bold and imaginative step of establishing a centrally organized public library system which would demonstrate the use of libraries on the village level. Any village which can provide free accommodation and volunteer labor for the library together with supervision by a Mass Education Committee may, on request, receive a collection of two hundred or more carefully chosen titles for use by a newly literate population. Indonesia has over forty thou-

sand villages, and fifteen thousand village libraries were functioning effectively and efficiently by 1953. Local initiative and the organization of book supply on a national scale made this astonishing success possible.

"Indonesia has not yet passed any library legislation and so far all administrative decisions about libraries have been made by decree of the Minister of Education."³ It is hoped that the central government will gradually be able to transfer responsibility for financing the public library service to the provincial and regional levels of administration.

The long-term plan is to develop in each province one provincial headquarters library which will coordinate the development of other libraries within the province and also channel central government aid to libraries. Through this system of provincial libraries, administered by the Libraries Bureau of the Ministry of Education, national and even international interlibrary loans will be made possible. There are at present only six provincial libraries—in Djakarta, Jogjakarta (which is the best developed of the provincial libraries), Semarang, Makassar, Bandung and Bukittinggi, Central Sumatra—"but it is around the provincial libraries that general library development in each province is likely, in the future, to center."⁴

Other nationwide public library systems are being attempted by the Ministry of Information, the Ministry of Religion and other ministries, hence the need for a National Library Board which was established in 1954 to act as a coordinating body and report to the Ministry of Education through the Libraries Bureau. The Libraries Bureau is also responsible for the work of the Library School and the National Bibliographical Centre.

In the public library system it has been found in many places that more than 50 per cent of the use of the library is by younger people. "The public libraries on the village level are not aimed especially at use by children and a decision will at some time have to be taken as to whether reading for children is best provided through the schools or through public libraries. If a policy of provincial autonomy in administrative decisions of this kind should be implemented it is possible that the solution adopted will differ from province to province."⁵

As in Indonesia, the Japan Ministry of Education is the central government agency responsible for the development and supervision of public libraries. Public library development in Japan enjoys two

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great advantages. The first is that Japan has possibly the highest literacy rate in the world; the second is that the Japanese are omnivorous readers of every kind of printed matter and books, to them, rank almost as a necessity.

The modern library movement in Japan dates from contact with the West in the nineteenth century and the spread of ideas of democratic rights and of equal educational opportunities. In 1872, the Imperial Library was founded in Tokyo, the first modern public library in the history of Japanese libraries. Local government authorities competed with each other in establishing public libraries and by 1927 there were 4,306 public libraries. Heavy losses in book stocks were sustained during the second world war, but even at the end of the war, there were 3,399 public libraries. In 1957, there were only 725 recognized public libraries, owing to the fact that many of those found to be incompetent were dissolved when Japan's Library Law was promulgated in 1950.

Japan's Library Law makes clear what is meant by a modern public library service by specifying that libraries collect not only books and periodicals, but also audio-visual materials, art works, gramophone records, and films. It established that public libraries must be free and provides for National Treasury grants to libraries which come up to prescribed standards laid down by the Ministry of Education. It also set up librarianship as a profession requiring high qualifications. The Japan Library Association is now working on proposed amendments to the Library Law, which include establishment of a national library system of municipal, town and village libraries, prefectural libraries and the National Library, the establishment of public libraries by local authorities by legal obligation, and government responsibility for the training of librarians.

Postwar development of the public library system with United States technical assistance is progressing, but at a slow rate. Public libraries are developing as local community and cultural centers. Extension activities include film shows, concerts, discussions, exhibitions, and puppet shows. The lending of audio-visual materials as well as books is well established. Reference services are generally weak and have to combat the idea that giving reference service is a menial task.

Prefectural libraries having smaller funds are less developed than municipal and town libraries. There are about seventy bookmobiles in Japan which provide service to rural areas.

There is an acute shortage of trained staff. It is estimated that 1,670 qualified librarians are on the staff of public libraries and that a further four thousand are needed.

According to a Japan Library Association survey in 1956, only 212 libraries out of 725 (20 per cent) have children's rooms. In addition, three hundred libraries also lend books to children between five and fourteen years of age. Most of the children's libraries are managed as an activity of the Board of Education and are attached to the public libraries.

The Kochi Municipal Library was made a Unesco associated library project in 1956. One of its main concerns is to bring home to the Japanese people, with their tradition of book buying and not book borrowing, the importance of the part public libraries can play in the service of the community.

The Madras Public Libraries Act of 1948 was the first legislation of its kind in India, although public libraries (i.e. subscription libraries partly supported by government funds) had existed from the nineteenth century. It provided for the establishment of public libraries and the organization of a comprehensive rural and urban library service throughout the state. It also provided for a Provincial Library Committee constituted by the government to advise it on all library matters, a director of libraries, a Local Library Authority for every district and a library cess on the property tax. With the reorganization of the state into Madras and Andhra states, the Public Libraries Act became applicable to the territory of the Andhra state. Hyderabad state passed a Libraries Act in 1955, but with the disintegration of the state under the States Reorganization Act, 1956, Andhra state, whose capital is Hyderabad, has now two separate library acts in operation in its territory. The Andhra government is now introducing a bill in the state legislature to provide for library service in Andhra Pradesh. Apart from Madras and Andhra states, there does not yet exist a planned system of public libraries in India, and public library development, as a whole, has been very uneven.

Baroda state led the way, between 1906 to 1911, with an elaborate system composed of the Central Library, village libraries, and traveling libraries. Between 1937 and 1942, the library movement grew in strength and Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Orissa, Punjab, Cochin and some other provinces and states set up village libraries, and in some cases, even traveling libraries. It is estimated that by 1942 there were 13,000 village libraries in India.

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A scheme for "Improvement of Library Service" was included in the First Five-Year Plan of Educational Development 1951-56. It proposed the establishment of district libraries supplemented by a central library for the whole state, or for a whole linguistic region for multi-lingual states. "Integrated library service" units were set up in twenty-nine areas in the country, each including the library unit and five model community centers. In every such area, it was intended that there should be a headquarters library with a network of branches in every community center from which books would be distributed to twenty villages or so within reach of a community center. By the end of the First Five-Year Plan, nine state central libraries and ninety-six district libraries had been set up and fifty-two existing district libraries were receiving central government assistance.

In 1952, the Government of India initiated the community development program, in which social education was assigned an important role. Libraries were recognized as agents of social education and thus the community development program gave a fillip to rural libraries. By the end of March 1954, India had 32,000 libraries.

The Second Five-Year Plan 1956-61 for library development aims to have a central state library for each state, district libraries for the city and rural areas, block libraries and *Panchayat* [village committee] libraries, with the National Library at the apex of the system. The state central library would serve as a copyright library for the state and organize bibliographical work while the district library would be the main distributory library for rural areas, either independently or through existing libraries. The Plan also provided for the setting up of a central institute for the training of librarians.

Following the 1955 Unesco Seminar, a nine-member Advisory Committee for Libraries was set up to investigate present reading needs and reading tastes, advise on the future library structure of India and on cooperation between library and educational services, study training methods and make recommendations on the financial and administrative help required. Its *Report*, published by the Ministry of Education in 1959, is a comprehensive and thoroughly practical one, which surveys the problem of library development realistically. Its most important recommendations are for a twenty-five year Library Plan, a library cess levied by the state which would be equalled by central government grants, and a department of libraries in each state, which would lay down the standards of library service.

No survey of the Indian library scene would be complete without

the story of the Delhi Public Library, opened in 1951 as the first Unesco library pilot project. Within four years, the library had built up a membership of over 27,000 registered borrowers and a stock of 65,000 books. Its open access system, uncommon in India, was greatly appreciated and its daily average issues reached a total of 1,300. Its special services to children include story hours and puppet shows, and its social education activities include film shows, exhibitions, lectures, drama, debates, and discussions. A mobile library service was begun in 1953 and serves fifteen centers, seven in rural areas and eight in urban. The library also supplies books to seven deposit stations in social education centers in Delhi.

An evaluation report of the Delhi Public Library by F. M. Gardner was published by Unesco in 1957. Although the Delhi Library had met a very large pent-up demand for reading, the report ascertained that the library was being used "mainly by younger and better-educated persons, mostly male." It was not reaching out sufficiently to the women, to the newly-literates and the older and less-well-educated people. The social education activities were used "by only a few of the members, and by the better-educated proportion of them." The inquiry revealed many other problems, "which are a challenge not only to the Delhi Library Board but to other librarians," but it also showed clearly "that public library facilities are a prime necessity which will be eagerly used where provided."⁶

In the People's Republic of China, there are four different types of libraries. Public libraries are controlled by the Ministry of Education. The first of these was opened in Shanghai in 1949 with a stock of 900,000 books. There are about fifty-nine provincial libraries, mostly with about 150,000 volumes each. These have exhibition rooms, children's reading rooms, and branch libraries. Villages and isolated readers are served by local voluntary workers from the cooperative books.

Trade union libraries and houses of culture are attached to the factories and industrial organizations. They usually contain from three to ten thousand books. The houses of culture act as reading rooms in the evenings for hearing the latest news.

School and children's libraries are sometimes independent and sometimes attached to a public library. Book publishing in China is virtually a state monopoly. Hundreds of young students use the government textbook shops as a public library, browsing among the books or sitting on the floor studying, some teaching themselves to read.

Peasant lending libraries are mobile libraries which tour the country

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districts in summer teaching the people to read. The library staff is usually composed of volunteers.

Public library development in Ceylon is almost wholly in the hands of local authorities and a planned national library system is essential if further progress is to be made. The largest public library is the Colombo Public Library, founded in 1955 by pooling the resources of two private libraries. It is now being run as a municipal library and contains over 30,000 volumes. It has plans for expansion into a central reference and lending library containing over 400,000 volumes in all three languages, and a chain of over thirty branch libraries. The library provides in-service training for librarians.

A demonstration public library project is being developed at the Unesco Government of Ceylon Fundamental Education Project in Minneriya, some 130 miles from Colombo. It is planned by the Adult Education and Literacy Department in close coordination with the other departments of the project and aims to supply literature to all classes of readers, even in remote villages. Book boxes of carefully selected Sinhalese and Tamil books are circulated through the Adult Education Centres, special attention being paid to the provision of children's books and books for new literates. The Project has also produced teaching materials such as flannelgraphs, flashcards, charts, story picture series, maps and posters, while the Audio-Visual Department makes filmstrips, teaching slides, etc. in close association with the library system activities.

The Ceylonese Ministry of Local Government sponsors community centers. Two prominent activities of these centers are libraries and recreation, including music. The library system cooperates with the Local Government Department of the project in stimulating and improving such community centers in the area and organizing new ones.

Taiwan now has a total of 429 libraries and independent reading rooms, including one national library, two provincial libraries, seventeen city or prefectural libraries, four libraries maintained by the Social Education Centers, and 405 reading rooms affiliated to the public service stations.

The Provincial Taipei Library (269,168 volumes) is the largest public library, with valuable collections on Taiwan and Southern Asia. It has fifty-two staff members, space for three hundred readers, and serves an average of two thousand readers daily. It has two branch libraries in Hsin Tien, a suburb of Taipei, and in Ku T'ing Ward, in

Taipei City. It also operates a traveling library in cooperation with the United States Information Service that serves fifty-one book stations over all northern Taiwan. In addition, thirty book cases are carried by bicycle to places not readily accessible by the bookmobile. The library also organizes concerts of recordings, film shows, exhibitions, and language classes.

The Provincial Taichung Library (47,000 volumes) has twenty-one staff members and serves an average of 910 readers daily.

There are four city and thirteen prefectural libraries, among which the best equipped is the Taipei City Library (49,000 volumes). In accordance with the Social Education Law promulgated in 1953, the Taiwan Provincial Government established four Social Education Centres in 1954, each of which has established a public reading room. The largest, in Taitung, has over 14,000 volumes and serves an average of 103,000 readers annually. In addition, 405 reading rooms attached to the public service centers set up in various cities, towns, and villages are serving the public with newspapers, magazines, and a small number of books.

Libraries in Hsinchu, Taoyuan, Taipei, and Penghu counties circulate book boxes to small towns and villages. Film shows, exhibitions, reading clubs, and record concerts are organized by several public libraries, which also contribute to the implementation of university courses by radio undertaken both by the Ministry of Education and the Department of Education, Taiwan Provincial Government. With an illiteracy rate of 18 per cent, most of the public libraries have joined in the campaign against illiteracy by organizing night schools for teaching Chinese and English.

The basis for public library development has been laid. The main problems are lack of qualified library staff, insufficiency of books in Chinese and western languages as most of the public library collections are largely made up of Japanese books, since their founding dates from the Japanese occupation. Apart from a few libraries, most of the public libraries occupy temporary buildings which are inadequate because of poor ventilation, insufficient light, small space, or being located too far from the populous centers. For example, the Provincial Taipei Library shares a building with the Provincial Museum.

The public library movement in the Philippines is over fifty years old, but libraries suffered heavy losses during World War II. Library services are provided by four independent agencies: the Bureau of

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Public Libraries, Manila City Libraries, Bureau of Public Schools' reading centers, and U.S.I.S. libraries.

Libraries under the Bureau of Public Libraries are organized as a national service, but the Bureau also operates as a national and a public library, a copyright office and national archives, and administrator of the marriage law. It controls 44 provincial and city libraries, 203 municipal libraries, 8 village libraries, and 25 library deposit stations.

The Pecson Municipal Library Act passed in June 1949 has stimulated the development of public libraries in the 1,200 municipalities of the Philippines. It provided for a five year plan involving an annual appropriation of three hundred thousand dollars for the establishment of municipal libraries and envisaged that about one thousand municipal libraries would be established by the end of the period, with extension planned through the establishment of small libraries, deposit stations, and bookmobile service.

Unfortunately, implementation of the plan has been seriously hampered by reduction of available funds from Congress, the shortage of trained librarians, low salaries, lack of adequate quarters, and the inability of many municipalities to make a financial contribution for library service.

A slightly more cheerful picture is that of the library scene in Thailand. The first public libraries were organized in seventeen *changwads* (districts) by the Adult Education Department of the Ministry of Education and there are now 236 library service points in operation. Many of these are small reading rooms with about a hundred books, a few periodicals, and posters. Local authorities are responsible for the organization and management of the libraries while financial support, bibliographical and technical aid depend on the Ministry of Education. Nine bookmobiles are in service. There are also "public" libraries run by private individuals, and thirteen libraries (three in Bangkok and ten in the provinces) which are under the Department of Fine Arts.

The Library Co-ordinating Committee set up in 1953 to improve public library conditions recommended that libraries in each *changwad* should be coordinated on a regional basis, using the *changwad* library as the main library, and subordinate libraries as branches. The Chachoengsoa library was chosen as a demonstration library as part of the Thailand Unesco Fundamental Education Centre (T.U.F.E.C.), which was begun at Ubol in northeast Thailand in

1954. It has a book box and a book boat operated by trained students which circulate books among the villages. A number of bookmobiles are also in operation, but where this is not feasible owing to bad roads, a special traveling library designed to fit the base of a two-wheeled pony cart is in use.

Burma is a predominantly agricultural country. The rural population constitutes about 85 per cent of her nineteen million people. Before the war, in urban areas there were 186 libraries ranging in importance from the state-supported University Library of Rangoon to a small library organized by a local voluntary organization in a district town, and in the sphere of rural areas there were a thousand reading clubs. During the war all of them suffered severe losses.

Since independence, a few municipalities have established public libraries. The Bernard Free Library in Rangoon receives a direct annual grant from the government, a Municipal Public Library has been established at Moulmein, the British Council has a library in Rangoon and there are U.S.I.S. libraries in Rangoon and Mandalay.

The Mass Education Council's Rural Library Service is the most important public library development in Burma. It has a training center for organizers in rural library service. Each graduate of the training center is supplied with a set of carefully chosen books to suit rural requirements—books for the newly literate, books on agriculture, animal husbandry, poultry, cottage industries, cooperatives, traditional culture, and religion. Around these little sets of books have sprung up small village reading-rooms, organized by the villagers themselves, many of which have developed into village community centers. Book boxes containing an average of two hundred volumes are also circulated. Mass Education Council vans equipped with sound projectors, epidiascopes, loudspeakers and wireless sets, tape-recorders, gramophones, portfolios of pictures, posters, books, and periodicals tour the villages and prepare the way for the establishment of mass education centers.

Public libraries at present are under the charge of municipal corporations and local bodies. At the time of partition there were only a few libraries, but there are now about 500 libraries of all types in the country. The largest public library is the Punjab Public Library, Lahore (125,000 volumes) which will probably become the provincial library for West Pakistan. The Sind Provincial Library, the first provincial library in Pakistan, was established by the government of Sind in 1952. East Pakistan Central Public Library at Dacca came

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into existence in 1955 and is the first modern library building in the country.

Pakistan is one of the newest countries in Asia, hence its library development is still very much at the formative stage. Plans for a comprehensive scheme of library services for Pakistan were drawn up in 1956 by L. C. Key, deputy librarian of the National Library of Australia, at the invitation of the Pakistan government. The scheme prepared by Key is designed as a four-year project. "It envisages the establishment of 36 libraries including one National Library at Karachi . . . , two provincial libraries, six public libraries, six university libraries, twenty college libraries, one special library, and two library schools."⁷ The scheme is now being examined by the government and by the Pakistan Library Association and other interested bodies.

Library development in Sarawak, though little known, has been fairly rapid. The first public library in Sarawak is the Central Library at Kuching, operated since 1950 by the British Council. "In January 1958, the control of the library passed from the Council to the Director of Education while the "outstation" libraries have been handed over to their respective local authorities for administration and control."⁸

The Sarawak Central Library has a stock of over twenty-three thousand books in English, Chinese, and Malay and a membership of over two thousand of whom 1,211 are student members. School children are by far the largest users of libraries where children's books are provided.

The Central Library, which has a qualified librarian, controls twenty-six public libraries of various sizes, ranging from a collection of one hundred books to a fairly large outstation library of five thousand volumes. All these outstation libraries, with the exception of Sibu and Miri, draw their bulk loan stock from an outstation pool in Kuching. It also provides a book box service to nearly 215 schools, and gives an elementary training to all outstation librarians.

In North Borneo libraries have been set up in four main towns, with the Jesselton Library acting as the central library, but there is as yet no organized library service in Brunei.

There has been little public library development in South Korea since the Korean war. At present there are nine public libraries, including the National Library, with a total of approximately 476,000 volumes. Some of the public libraries show films on education, culture, and science.

Before the Korean war, there were children's departments in the public library, but they were all destroyed during the war, and efforts are now being made to re-establish them. There is a children's library in the National Library, which was established in 1953, and a High School Boys' Library also in the National Library.

There are no public or municipal libraries in Hong Kong, although a public library will be included in the new Hong Kong City Hall to be built in 1959. There are two important private libraries: the Hok Hoi Library which was founded thirty-six years ago by a group of Chinese scholars with the financial help of some wealthy Chinese citizens, and the Mencius Educational Foundation Library, founded in 1952 with American funds.

The Hok Hoi Library at one time possessed more than 100,000 volumes, the larger part of which was lost during the Japanese occupation. The present collection of approximately 34,000 Chinese books was saved by being preserved in the Fung Ping Shan Chinese Library of the University of Hongkong during the war. It is open to members of the public, but books cannot be borrowed. The Mencius Educational Foundation Library has about 10,000 volumes in English and 60,000 volumes in Chinese. It issues six thousand readers' tickets a year and is greatly used by college and high school students. The only other public libraries are those of the British Council and the U.S.I.S.

Services to children are provided by the Junior Chamber of Commerce. Since 1951 it has established sixteen small libraries for primary school children and the public in the rural New Territories, the largest of which has 4,000 volumes. The Nixon Library was founded in 1953 and serves the rural areas. The Junior Chamber of Commerce also runs a mobile library with three thousand volumes for the benefit of children in Kowloon and the New Territories.

The Social Welfare Department in 1958 began to establish mobile libraries in the district of Taipo, which consists of a number of vans carrying reading material to the young people of the district.

Raffles National Library in Singapore has been a national and public library since 1958. It came under the Ministry of Education until June 1959, when it was transferred to the newly-formed Ministry of Culture by the government when the People's Action Party came into office. The Library has a total stock of 150,000 volumes, most of which were in English until 1957, when books in Chinese, Malay, and Tamil began to be added. There is also a collection of Braille books for the

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blind and four thousand volumes of music. There is a children's library which is extremely popular, three branch libraries, and two mobile libraries. The mobile libraries are not yet in use due to lack of trained staff.

There is no organized system of public libraries in Malaya, although there are a number of subscription libraries in towns. The largest of these is the Kuala Lumpur Book Club, with about 100,000 volumes, followed by Penang Library, the Sir Henry Gurney Memorial Library, Malacca (8,000 volumes), and the Butterworth Free Library (5,000 volumes). Lack of progress in library development is due to official indifference and the mistaken belief that libraries can be adequately financed and administered by town boards, societies, book clubs, and educational and religious organizations.

The most encouraging development in recent years has been that of the Malayan Public Library Association, founded in 1955. It had a total of 221 libraries by the end of 1957, most of which were in new villages, although some of its collections were in towns. These were Chinese and Malay libraries, the first such libraries to be formed in Malaya. After this promising start, the Association has unfortunately been unable to further its work owing to financial difficulties and lack of administrative direction.

A memorandum on a Public Library Service for the Federation of Malaya was drawn up in 1956 by the Malayan Library Group at the request of the Federation Adult Education Association for submission to the Ministry of Education. The memorandum recommended a national library service for Malaya administered by a library board, financed from Federation funds. Local authorities would provide the buildings for the libraries and the federal government would provide the book stocks and library staff.

The memorandum also emphasized that special attention should be given to libraries for school children and the provision of a postal request service for teachers and students, and the provision of literature in the vernacular languages.

The memorandum was finally published by the Malayan Library Group in 1958 and received a good press and considerable support from the public. A recent statement by the Prime Minister indicated that the idea of a national library service has been accepted by the government, and it is to be hoped that financial stringencies will not long delay the taking of the first steps towards satisfying the need of the people for public library services.

In Papua-New Guinea library services come under the Department of Education and special efforts have been made to meet the requirements of the people. A pilot library project started at Hanuabada, near Port Moresby, in 1949, proved so successful that it led to the establishment of other such centers, which reached a total of 155 libraries with a total of some thirty thousand books by 1955. The books are in simple English and include biographies, textbooks, simple folk tales, and animal stories.

Australian territories in the Pacific are served by the Commonwealth National Library of Australia, and New Zealand territories by the New Zealand School Library Service, while the South Pacific Literature Bureau gives advice and help in the establishment of libraries throughout the area. The two largest public libraries are the Carnegie Library in Suva City, Fiji, and the Ramakrishna Library in Nadi, Fiji, which was made a free public library in 1952. The Ramakrishna Library operates a branch library, a bookmobile service (using a converted lorry), a hospital service, and has its own 16 mm. projector. It is financed entirely by the Ramakrishna Mission.

The postwar period has seen a spectacular growth of students and of universities and colleges in Asia. When independence came to India, higher education had a long-established position and its own tradition. Three Indian universities, for example, celebrated their centenary in 1957. Independence has brought to the thirty-odd Indian universities new problems, new opportunities and new functions arising from the demands of national development. The number of university students has increased more than three-fold within the ten years since independence, but there has been no corresponding increase in the number of teachers and still less in the physical amenities in colleges and universities. Among these, inadequate libraries are prominent. The development of Indian university libraries has been creditable, and the older ones such as Calcutta University Library and Madras University Library have large well-rounded collections, including special collections of great value. But many Indian university libraries are hampered by inadequate funds, cramped premises, lack of sufficient qualified staff, the low status of librarians, and the prevalence of closed access.

During the postwar occupation of Japan, the national university system was increased from nine to seventy two institutions. Thus there is at least one to each of the forty-six prefectures. According to a

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survey made by the Japan Library Association in October 1956, figures for university libraries were:

	<i>National</i>	<i>Prefecture</i>	<i>Private</i>	<i>Total</i>
Number of libraries				
Main	72	31	118	221
Branch	207	11	23	241
Total	279	42	141	462

Since the majority of Japanese university libraries are new, one of their main problems is that of establishing the role of the library in university education, a role which is as yet not generally appreciated or understood. Another problem is that of centralization. Many of the new universities were made up of many formerly independent colleges which were scattered throughout a wide region. The libraries of these former colleges, now departments of the universities, insist on retaining their independence and refusing to be united with the main library. As in India, the librarian has not yet established himself on a professional footing with the rest of the faculty. Librarians trained in bibliographical and reference work are also badly needed.

In 1941 higher education in Indonesia was largely confined to law and medical colleges in Djakarta, an engineering college in Bandung, and an embryo faculty of literature and philosophy. Today, there are eight universities in Indonesia, and in Bandung an Institute of Technology as well. The most important are the University of Indonesia (with branches in Djakarta, Makassar, Bogor, and Bandung, and comprising faculties of law and social science, engineering, medicine, veterinary science, letters and philosophy, and agriculture); Gadjah Mada University in Jogjakarta, Airlangga University in Surabaya, and the National University (Universitas Nasional) in Djakarta. Thus university libraries have had to be set up in seven cities, sometimes with faculty libraries at considerable distances from one another. "In most universities no central library has yet been established since the first and most urgent need has been to supply material to faculty libraries. At Jogjakarta a good start has been made in the development of a strong central university library, but elsewhere faculty libraries are usually autonomous."⁹ Staffing is the major problem that faces Indonesian university libraries and salaries are very low. The libraries also operate in very cramped premises. There is a serious shortage of funds. "Yet Gadjah Mada spends more money on books than any Uni-

versity Library in the British Commonwealth and the Library has a staff of fifty-eight." ¹⁰ Assistance to Indonesian universities has been forthcoming from international agencies. A form of assistance that might well be emulated by others is that supplied by Cornell University Library. The library contracted to build a core collection on public administration for the University of Indonesia at Djakarta. The International Cooperation Association (I.C.A.) set aside \$9,000 for the purpose, of which \$7,500 was for books, catalogs and shipping, and a collection of over 1,000 titles was finally built up.

South Korea before the liberation had only one university and twenty-five junior colleges, all mainly in service to the Japanese. By 1957, it had fifteen universities, thirty-four colleges, six junior colleges and twenty special schools. Such an increase in a war-devastated country has brought with it huge problems of shortage of staff, buildings, library facilities, and instructional apparatus. The United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (U.N.K.R.A.), I.C.A., and other assistance agencies are providing aid in these fields. A three-year contract with the University of Minnesota provides \$1,800,000 for technical assistance to Seoul National University. The over-all aid program includes funds for assistance to college and university libraries on a nationwide basis.

At the time of partition, there were only three universities and several colleges in the area now known as Pakistan. Now there are six universities and 156 colleges. All the six universities, those of Punjab, Dacca, Sind, Peshawar, Karachi, and Rajshahi, have libraries under the charge of foreign-trained librarians. A new business and public administration library for the University of Karachi is being organized and compiled at the University of Pennsylvania, one of five exchange contracts between major American universities and I.C.A. to finance and provide assistance to five Pakistan universities for three years. The other four exchange contracts include the furnishing of laboratory equipment, supplies, textbooks, and library books on the basis of proven need.

Before the war, there were few colleges and universities in the Philippines; in 1954-55 there were more than three hundred colleges and seventeen private universities throughout the country. University libraries suffered heavy losses of books during the war. One of the largest libraries, that of the University of the Philippines, was destroyed during the war, and a new university and library have now been built. Rehabilitation was aided by the U.S. Foreign Operations

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Administration, and by 1954, 150,000 volumes, mainly free gifts from American colleges and universities, had been assembled. The library was also completely reorganized and centralized.

There are five institutions of higher education in Thailand. The oldest is Chulalongkorn University (founded 1917) which has the highest standards. It also has the largest library—over 36,000 volumes in 1957—followed by the library of the University of Moral and Political Sciences (Thammasat University, founded in 1933) with 12,000 volumes and the library of the University of Agriculture at Bang Khen (Kasetsart University, founded in 1948) with 10,000 volumes. The other university libraries are those of the University of Medical Sciences, separated from Chulalongkorn University in 1948, and the small University of Fine Arts, supervised by the Ministry of Culture. I.C.A. has sponsored five university contracts in Thailand similar to those operating in Pakistan which will, among other things, help to improve the extremely limited library facilities at present available.

China (Taiwan) has about fifteen university and college libraries. The largest is the National Taiwan University Library, founded in 1928. With an average increase of about 20,000 volumes a year its stock is now 700,000 volumes, which makes it one of the largest university libraries in Asia. It is playing an increasingly important role as the country's first research library and bibliographical center. Its total seating capacity (including branch and departmental libraries) is 1,540 and the present enrollment is 6,700 students. It is the only library in Taiwan to have adopted the Library of Congress classification. It has open access, exchanges publications with about 1,300 institutions in fifty countries, and has its own bindery and photocopying services.

It is perhaps too early to speak of university libraries in Vietnam and Cambodia. In Vietnam, a National University at Saigon has very recently been developed out of what was once a branch of the University of Hanoi, and has schools of letters, law, sciences, medicine, and architecture. A Public Works School, Radio-Electricity School and a School of Marine Navigation were established in Hanoi under the French regime. These three schools began to function in separate places in Saigon, but now with United States aid they have been newly constructed and equipped on a single campus which may become Vietnam's first institute of technology. Mention must also be made of the National Institute of Administration Library. In January 1959 it

published a second edition of its printed catalog with the assistance of Michigan State University Group. Its classified catalog listed more than 3,000 English books, over 1,500 French books, 206 Vietnamese books, and 254 periodicals. The library caters to faculty and students as well as to officials of government departments and agencies.

In Cambodia the National Institute of Legal, Political and Economic Studies, which trains civil servants, was until recently the only institution of higher learning in Cambodia. The National Institute of Public Administration was founded early in 1956 and a National University was planned for 1957.

The University of Rangoon Library (founded 1929) suffered considerable damage during the second world war. It was reorganized in 1954 and now has 54,000 volumes in its main and departmental libraries.

The American Library Association, with a grant of \$180,000 from the Ford Foundation, has recently agreed to assist the University to establish a modern library as part of the University's newly developed School of Social Sciences. The program envisaged includes advice on organizing the new library, selection of books and other publications, in-service training for the library staff, arranging graduate library study in the United States for three Burmese, and the addition of about 9,000 books needed to complete the required initial stock of 25,000 volumes, together with library equipment.

Finally, there is a group of university libraries in formerly British overseas territories, largely of post-1945 development under the co-ordination of the Inter-University Council. In Ceylon, Hong Kong, and Malaya, each with a single university library (except the last, which now has a library in Singapore and in Kuala Lumpur), the tendency has been to accord professorial rank to the librarian who is required to possess a degree or higher qualification as well as library skills. Hongkong University Library, founded in 1911, has over 100,000 books in western languages and a Chinese collection of over 112,000 volumes separately housed in the Fung Ping Shan Library. A new university library building has been planned for 1960.

Apart from the University Library, there are at present eight Chinese post-secondary colleges (sometimes called Refugee Colleges) of varying standards. Their libraries are growing as fast as their student numbers. The largest is the Chung Chi College Library, which has approximately 36,000 volumes in Chinese and 11,500 volumes in English. Special funds are available, particularly from the Lingnan

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Trustees and the Harvard-Yenching Institute, for the library to procure books.

Ceylon University was founded in 1942 by the incorporation of the Ceylon Medical College (founded 1870) and the Ceylon University College (founded 1921). The University Library moved to Peradeniya in 1952 and has a collection of about 100,000 volumes and over 1,700 periodicals, while the Ceylon Medical Library contains about 19,000 volumes.

The University of Malaya was founded in 1949 from the amalgamation of the two existing colleges, and King Edward VII College of Medicine (founded 1905) and Raffles College (founded 1928). These Colleges are situated four miles apart, hence the fact that the University Library in Singapore is in two parts, the Medical Library and Arts and Science Library. Both libraries are air-conditioned and together they have a stock of just over 250,000 volumes, of which 130,000 volumes are contained in the Chinese Library.

A Kuala Lumpur Division of the University of Malaya was established in 1957 in temporary premises. In January 1959, this Division was constituted "the University of Malaya in Kuala Lumpur," with autonomy and equal status as the University of Malaya in Singapore. The University of Malaya in Kuala Lumpur moved to new buildings in June 1959. The library has 12,000 volumes and is housed in an air-conditioned building.

The library of the University of Malaya in Singapore is one of the few university libraries in Asia with microfilm cameras, microfilm and microcard readers, and photocopying equipment. Its hours of service are from 8:00 a.m. to 10:00 p.m. during term, and it has a core of qualified staff with overseas training some of whom have now been transferred to the university library in Kuala Lumpur.

With a few exceptions school libraries are perhaps the most backward of all the types of libraries in Asia. This is not surprising when one takes into account the phenomenal increase in the number of schools and of children attending school since the second world war. This is because most Asian countries are making desperate efforts to provide four to six years of compulsory elementary education for all their school populations. School libraries have to compete with other priorities such as the supply of teachers, buildings, and textbooks. Classroom libraries are more frequent than a separate library room, book stocks are poor and not renewed regularly, open access is not too common, and untrained librarians struggle to provide adequate

services. The importance of school library provision is being increasingly recognized, but it will be many years before minimum standards of school library provision can be reached.

Japan leads the rest of Asia in its provision of school libraries. The percentage of schools having libraries is very high, 60 per cent in primary schools, 70.3 per cent in junior high schools, and 74.7 per cent in senior high schools, in 1954. A school library handbook was published by the Ministry of Education in 1948 and school library standards laid down by the ministry in 1949.

A school library law was enacted in 1953, which provides that school libraries staffed by professional librarians will be set up in all schools with some financial assistance from the government. However, the government's aid is often small and is supplemented by contributions from local groups to which the pupils' parents belong. Training classes for teacher-librarians have been held since 1954, but there is still a shortage of staff in school libraries.

A National School Library Association was formed in 1950. It issues a monthly periodical, *School Library*; compiles book lists and an annual "standard" catalog of books for school libraries; arranges lectures and exhibitions; and conducts research on library techniques and reading problems.

In Burma all schools have libraries, but they vary in quality as there is no system of inspection and control. In India, Ceylon, Malaya, Singapore, Hong Kong, and the Philippines, school libraries are more common in the secondary than in the elementary and primary schools. Some of the best school libraries are those attached to mission schools, such as the Anglo-Chinese School (Methodist Mission) in Ipoh, Malaya, the only school library which boasts air-conditioning. In Thailand, Cambodia, Vietnam, and Laos, school libraries are less common and of very doubtful quality.

The majority of special libraries in Asia are attached to government departments and institutions or to universities and colleges while a far smaller number have been set up in recent years by industries and firms. Like other libraries in Asia, special libraries suffer from inadequate premises and a lack of qualified staff. Many of them are small and poor with big gaps in their collections. Few manage to provide abstracting and translating services or indexing of periodical articles. Essential microfilm and other photocopying equipment is also lacking in many special libraries.

India, Japan, and Indonesia have the largest number of special li-

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braries, chiefly in the fields of science, technology, and medicine. In 1951, India had about twenty-four special libraries, mostly governmental, but the number has greatly increased since then. The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research was established in 1942 and a number of research laboratories attached to C.S.I.R. were opened between 1950 and 1954, each with its own special library. A library was presented to India's Atomic Energy Commission by the United States government in 1956.

The Indian National Scientific Documentation Centre was set up in 1952 by the government of India, with the technical assistance of Unesco, to help Indian scientists keep abreast of current scientific literature. The three services offered are the compilation of bibliographies, translation of scientific documents by a panel of sixty translators in universities and government departments, and the procurement of documents and photocopies from places within India and abroad. Since June 1954, I.N.S.D.O.C. has published a classified list of current scientific literature. An Indian Association of Special Libraries and Information Centres (I.A.S.L.I.C.) was formed in Calcutta in 1955.

Most of Pakistan's special libraries are attached to government departments or to the universities. The Karachi Development Association Research Library, though small and overcrowded, provides good services for the Authority, including the abstracting and routing of material in the field of economics and statistics. Equally overcrowded is the Central Secretariat Library "with its emphasis on political science and its large collection of government documents, its photostat and microfilm services."¹¹

The Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (P.A.N.S.D.O.C.) has been established by the government of Pakistan recently. "The aim of this Centre is to provide the scientists and technical workers, access to world's literature on their subjects. At present the services are restricted to location, procurement, and translation of materials."¹²

In Burma, apart from Rangoon University, the only scientific special library is that of the Union of Burma Applied Research Institute in Rangoon, which is engaged on research in the special fields of interest to the economy of the country. A Technical Information Centre has been organized at the library, which takes about five thousand scientific and technical periodicals, and maintains a card index of the scientific periodicals available in Burma.

Smaller special libraries are those of the Burma Translation Society, which is currently engaged on a Burmese Encyclopedia and on translation into Burmese of science textbooks for schools, the Burma Council of World Affairs, and the Burma Research Society.

The Ceylon Institute of Scientific and Industrial Research in Colombo was set up in 1955 by the government with the assistance of the International Bank of Reconstruction and Development. Its technical reference library is for the use of technical workers, scientists, and industrialists. The other important special libraries are those of the National Museum in Colombo (90,000 volumes) which has specially good collections in the fields of zoology and natural history, the Medical Research Institute, and the Ceylon Medical Research Library.

Apart from the universities, Thailand's most important scientific library is that of the Department of Science, Bangkok, which comes under the Ministry of Industry. Other special libraries are those of the Swami Satyananda Puri Foundation Library (founded 1942), which contains 5,500 volumes, the Thailand Research Society, and the Royal Institute of Arts and Sciences.

Credit must be given to the Dutch in Indonesia for the large number of well-established research libraries set up during the colonial period. Most of these are in the fields of medical sciences, agricultural sciences, and forestry.

There are, for instance, half a million books and five thousand manuscripts in one enormous room of the Museum of the Lembaga Kebudayaan Indonesia in Djakarta. The Central Bureau of Statistics Library in Djakarta has 80,000 volumes devoted to statistics and economics.

At Bogor, the Bibliotheca Bogoriensis, which has been famous for half a century as one of the finest botanical collections in the world now has 80,000 volumes in its main library and shares responsibility for another 70,000 volumes in seventeen scientific institutes in and around Bogor.¹³

Other important special libraries are attached to the government ministries and research institutes in Djakarta while at Jogjakarta is the Perpustakaan Islam (Islamic Library) containing 25,000 volumes.

According to the Japanese *Directory of Research Libraries* published in 1956, there are now about one thousand special libraries of all types in Japan. The greatest need appears to be for greater cooperation among the libraries. A Special Libraries Association was formed in 1955 which maintains liaison with the Association of Special Li-

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braries and Information Bureaux in Great Britain and the S.L.A. in the United States. The association has working groups on law, economics, atomic power, government, transportation, etc., which study the special problems in each field of member libraries.

Scientific documentation and information services are well organized in Tokyo and other important centers and Japan is far ahead of most other Asian countries in this respect. A Translation Bureau is being organized to translate Japanese scientific literature into foreign languages. The Scientific Information Division of the Ministry of Education provides information on technical subjects and publishes, in cooperation with other agencies, the *Japanese Science Review*. The Tokyo Institute of Technology (over one million volumes) serves as the headquarters of the Association of Scientific Documentation Services. This association compiles and issues index cards to its various member organizations, has published a union catalog of science periodicals and is now compiling a similar catalog of social science periodicals.

Special libraries in the Philippines include a large number of government libraries. No cooperation between these existed until 1952 when a library coordinator was appointed to organize an Inter-Departmental Reference Service, which would provide for interlibrary loans, compile a union catalog of holdings of member libraries and formulate minimum standards for library efficiency.

The largest scientific library is that of the Institute of Science and Technology, Manila (founded 1901) which possessed in 1941 one of the largest collections of scientific and technical publications in the Far East. Destroyed by the Japanese, the library now has over 16,000 books and 280,000 periodicals and pamphlets. It also acts as the Science Section of the National Library. The large National Museum Library was also destroyed during the war, but is now being rehabilitated.

The Federation of Malaya and Singapore have a number of small special libraries, chiefly attached to government departments and research institutes, the largest being that of the Department of Agriculture in Kuala Lumpur (40,000 volumes). There is a serious shortage of trained library staff and a great need for the development of inter-loan facilities, union catalogs of periodicals, and photocopying services.

In Hong Kong, the largest scientific research library is that of the University of Hongkong. Government departments have small collec-

tions. Two other special libraries are the China Buddhist Library (founded 1958) which possesses 11,000 volumes on Buddhism, and the "Union Press Library, which has 12,000 Chinese and 600 English books, mainly on current political affairs and social sciences. Its collection of current Chinese journals and periodicals is the most important."¹⁴

The existence of active professional library associations is an encouraging indication of the progress of library development in Asian countries. If anything, there appear to be too many library associations and the greatest need seems to be for coordination of effort and the uniting of separate library associations into strong, well-organized, single federated or national library associations. Library associations exist in Japan, China (People's Republic), China (Formosa) India, Pakistan, Indonesia, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Korea.

In India the first library association was formed at Andhra in 1914, followed by the Bengal Library Association in 1925, and most important, the Indian Library Association at Calcutta in 1935. Today India has numerous national, state, and provincial library associations which are extremely active in the publication of journals, the running of training courses, and the holding of regular meetings and conferences.

Pakistan has nine professional organizations. The Pakistan Library Association, founded in 1957, is the most recent but the most important as the first really national body. The Punjab Library Association, founded in early 1948, was the first library association in Pakistan, followed by the Karachi Library Association founded in December 1948. Its first task was organizing a library convention in 1950 and its next important one was the organizing of a Library School at Karachi. The Pakistan Bibliographical Working Group (founded 1950) has several bibliographical publications to its credit. Newer associations are the West Pakistan Library Association, the East Pakistan Library Association (founded 1956) and the Special Libraries Association (founded 1956). On an institutional scale are the Library Science Society of the University of Karachi (founded 1956) run by the students of the Department of Library Science and the Karachi University Library Science Alumni Association which is particularly interested in promoting the publication of library literature, particularly in the national languages.

The Japan Library Association (founded 1892) has a membership of 2,300. It has published a library journal since 1907 and has also

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published a *Nippon Decimal Classification*, *Nippon Cataloguing Rules*, and *Basic Subject Headings*. The Western Library Association (founded 1900) produces a very lively and progressive journal, *To-heki*. A Special Libraries Association was formed in 1952 with 125 member libraries. Its organ is *Biblos* and the Branch Libraries Division of the National Diet Library acts an information bureau for the S.L.A. In 1954 a Research Libraries Association was formed with nine library bodies as its constituents. Other library associations are the National Science Libraries Association, the Japan Private University Libraries Association, the Japanese Medical Libraries Association, and many more.

The Library Association of China (founded 1925 and reorganized in Taipei, Formosa, in 1953) had 360 members in 1957 and fifty institutional members. Its activities include book exhibitions, public lectures, workshops, and its publications include a *Bulletin*, an *Index to Chinese Characters for Filing*, and *A Classification System for Chinese Books*.

The Indonesian Library Association (P.A.P.A.D.I.) was set up during the first conference of librarians from the whole of Indonesia in March 1954. Since then branches of the Association have been established in several provincial capitals: Jogjakarta, Semarang, Makassar, Bandung. Its journal *Perpustakaan Arsip Documentasi* is published in Indonesian with an abstract in English at the end of each article. National conferences have been held at Djakarta in 1954 and 1957. The Association is engaged on "the development of a directory of libraries in Indonesia, the translation into Bahasa Indonesia of a list of technical terms used in library science and in developing a code for the cataloguing of Indonesian names."¹⁵

The Philippines Library Association (founded 1923) held its first postwar annual conference in 1948 and has more than five hundred active members. Provincial and regional library associations have been organized since 1948. The University of the Philippines Library Club (founded 1926) and the Bibliographical Society of the Philippines (founded 1931) resumed activities in 1951. An Association of Special Libraries in the Philippines was formed in 1952.

The Korean Library Association was formed in 1955. Its aims include a survey of Korean libraries, training courses for librarians, the publication of a periodical, and assistance in book selection.

The Malayan Library Group was formed in 1954 and open to members in the Federation of Malaya, Singapore, and the British

Borneo territories. It was reorganized as the Library Association of Malaya and Singapore in 1958, but unfortunately was refused registration in the Federation of Malaya, where political considerations have made pan-Malayan bodies unacceptable to the Federation government. With a total membership of less than one hundred of whom not more than a dozen or so are qualified librarians, the association has now to split into two separate associations for each territory.

The Hongkong Library Association formed in 1958 has a membership of forty and plans regular meetings and a directory of libraries and librarians in Hong Kong.

Library associations, as they develop in strength and experience, will need to concentrate on the coordination of such professional matters as library legislation, professional training, salary negotiations, library school curricula, conference organization and educational bibliographical, and publicity work. A recent fillip to the work of library associations in Asia was the formation in 1957 of the Asian Federation of Library Associations, a body which can pool the experience and efforts of librarians throughout Asia to promote library development and establish high professional standards.

In this brief survey of libraries in such a wide sweep of countries, it may seem that trends in development are quite invisible. Yet, like the same thought emerging from the reveries of a myriad of different minds, certain tendencies are now assuming form and becoming definite.

Everywhere, though not always in official circles, there is growing awareness of the importance of libraries. Many political leaders realize that libraries are instruments of economic development. There is a definite trend for governments to give libraries a place in the national budget and see that they receive adequate support from government funds. Governments of many newly developing countries are anxious that the libraries they establish should remain effective; they therefore legislate concerning libraries, they facilitate formation of schools of librarianship, or send young librarians to Britain, the United States, and elsewhere, on courses of study. There is increasing realization that librarianship is a specialized field and requires professionally trained practitioners. There is a clear trend for librarianship to respond to this enlightened official attitude, and to become dynamic rather than passive, to take books and ideas to people by every conceivable means rather than wait hopefully for people to come to the books.

Libraries help to create prosperity, self-help, equality of oppor-

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tunity. In the future the street hawker with his basket of beansprouts slung from a split bamboo will have the same chance to read as the millionaire towkay or the university graduate. If governments see that libraries are provided, developed, and maintained, the farmer's son in rural China, rural Malaya, up-country Thailand, in the far villages of India, and on the green rice terraces of Bali, will have the same chance to learn from books as the eager schoolboy in the streets of Peking, Singapore, Bangkok, Delhi, and Surabaya. Especially in the new nations that have emerged from colonialism the trend is for governments to see what is now obvious.

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Patterns of Library Service in Africa

JOHN T. STRICKLAND

READERS OF LIBRARY TRENDS will not need to be reminded that Africa is a vast territory. It is, in fact, as big as North America and Europe together, and West Africa is as far from East Africa as New York City is from Accra, the capital of Ghana.

The Mediterranean countries of North Africa have been part of world history from the earliest times, but of Africa south of the Sahara—l'Afrique noire—little apart from the coastline was known to the outside world before 1800. The colonial powers which took part in the "scramble for Africa" in the nineteenth century are now engaged in a much more difficult operation of withdrawal. The more than 230,000,000 people of Africa speak about seven hundred different languages, but since 1945 one of the most popular words in any of them has been "independence." Where the attainment of independence is not bedeviled by a white settler problem the process of achieving it has been relatively smooth and bloodless. Of the former British West African territories, Ghana became independent in 1957, Nigeria is to follow in 1960, and Sierra Leone probably within the next four years. Most of North Africa is now self-governing, and the whole of French West Africa was dramatically offered freedom by referendum in 1958. But "partnership" in the Rhodesias, "apartheid" in the Union of South Africa, and open warfare in Algeria show the difficult or tragic alternatives accompanying this rebirth of a continent.

These rapid political changes, however, while spectacular, are only the latest and perhaps to the ordinary African not the most important manifestation of an economic, industrial, and social revolution, which has been going on for the last half century. To the African, there is one prerequisite that is basic to all development—education. He knows it is education which gives the white man his superiority, and he is prepared to make any sacrifice to obtain it.

For librarians, this attitude is all-important, and where money is

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available for education the librarian stands a chance of securing a fair share of it for books. In English-speaking West Africa the establishment and rapid development of libraries has been largely due to this thirst for education, and this survey will start on the writer's home ground in Ghana.

A country of nearly five million people, which not so very long ago provided slave labor for the cotton fields of the southern states of America, Ghana is today newly independent, a self-avowed leader of African nationalism, wealthy for its size and with millions in reserve. Here surely is fertile soil for libraries. Before 1945 there were no libraries in the country, except for a British Council library in Accra, and one or two small collections of books in secondary schools. The establishment of the University College of the Gold Coast in 1948, of the Gold Coast Library Board in 1950, and of the Kumasi College of Technology in 1952, are the landmarks in both educational and library history.

The University College of Ghana is the apex of a rapidly expanding educational system, and awards the degrees of the University of London. There are faculties of arts, social studies, physical and biological sciences, and agriculture, a graduate institute of education, and a flourishing department of extramural studies. The library contains 115,000 books, and receives currently about 2,800 serials. It has a professional staff of twenty, including five senior posts, and caters for 550 students of both sexes and an academic staff of 150. Since 1948 it has occupied two single-storied buildings at Achimota, but was due to move in August 1959 into permanent quarters four miles away. The new library has cost over £350,000 (\$980,000), has a book capacity of 250,000, and can seat initially about 150 readers. At the rate at which university libraries in Africa are growing this building, like its predecessor, will probably be bulging at the seams by 1970; but it has obviously been planned to make extension a relatively simple matter.

The Kumasi College of Technology provides higher technical and commercial education, and engineering courses up to degree standard. Its library has a well selected stock of over 20,000 books and it receives about 650 periodicals. It has operated since 1952 in very inadequate premises, but a proper building has been planned for 1961. The library was built up by an experienced British librarian, and on her retirement a Ghanaian who is a Fellow of the Library Association was appointed.

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There are several special libraries worth noting, including the Medical Research Library, the Agriculture Department Library, and the West African Building Research Library, all in Accra. In Kumasi the Land and Soil-Use Survey library, and in Tafo the library of the West African Cocoa Research Institute, are of great importance to the economy of the country. No governmental libraries of any kind are yet beyond the planning stage, mainly because of the shortage of qualified librarians.

Libraries in secondary schools are all growing fast with collections of between two and five thousand books, but few of them are satisfactorily organized, and too little encouragement is given to the teachers placed in charge. The appointment of a librarian to the Ministry of Education, to advise and assist in the establishment and organization of school libraries, is a possible solution. Each primary school has a collection of class readers and simple stories, and the Library Board hopes to start in September a mobile service to middle schools.

The Ghana Library Board, which runs a national public library service, has the following objective embodied in its Ordinance—"to establish and equip, manage and maintain, libraries in the Gold Coast." It is financed almost entirely by a government grant, now about £70,000 (\$196,000) a year, and it has provided three regional and eleven branch libraries throughout the country. Bookstock has increased from the 5,000 volumes taken over from the British Council to over 230,000; issues from 45,000 in 1951 to almost half a million in 1958, and readers from 3,000 to nearly 30,000, almost half of whom are children. In addition to these static libraries a book-box service is given to over five hundred members, including local councils, schools, clubs, community centers, and individuals; and exchanges are made three times a year by bookmobiles which tour the whole country. A postal service and a prison service also operate.

The library staff numbers about sixty, including three British librarians and eight qualified Ghanaians. These latter have all spent a year at English library schools, and their training was paid for by a grant of £5,000 (\$14,000) provided by the Carnegie Corporation.

Ghana is a country addicted to five year plans, and in its next plan period, beginning July 1959, the Library Board is to receive over £200,000 (\$560,000) for capital development. Among projects approved are an extension to the Accra library (headquarters of the system), five branch library buildings, a scholarship fund of £10,000

(\$28,000) for a staff training, and most important of all a scheme for providing small libraries for children and teachers in each of the 1,300 middle schools in the country. It is proposed to visit each school once a term with a bookmobile, and the children and teachers will choose their own books. Like most projects in Africa, its success depends almost entirely upon a continuing supply of trained librarians.

No country in Africa, outside the Union, possesses a better public library service, but enthusiasm must be tempered by the thought that this is almost certainly a reflection upon their general inadequacy or total absence.

The Federation of Nigeria is a vast country, four times as large as Great Britain, and lies close to the equator in what has been called, for obvious reasons, the sweaty elbow of Africa. The land extends from the mangrove swamps in the south, through tropical forests, hilly ranges and open plateau, to the desert in the extreme north. The population of between thirty-five and forty million is a mixture of many tribes, the most important being the Hausa of the North, the Yoruba of the West, and the Ibo of the East.

The country is divided into three regions, Northern, Eastern, and Western—all self-governing—the Federal Territory of Lagos, and the Southern Cameroons. The whole country, with the exception of the Cameroons whose political future is uncertain, is to become fully independent in October 1960.

The Nigerian library scene is similar in some respects to that in Ghana—a good and rapidly expanding university library, a college of technology, and a number of special libraries attached to government organizations. Public library services operate in each of the regions, but are generally hampered by lack of funds and qualified personnel.

The University College, Ibadan, like that of Ghana, was founded in 1948. It is the mecca for students from all over Nigeria, and for some studies, from all over West Africa, and has faculties in arts, science, medicine, agriculture, and veterinary science. The library is a fine functional building of impressive design, situated at the center of the new and still expanding college campus. It has a staff of over fifty of whom eight are professionally qualified. The bookstock is now about 110,000, and includes the most comprehensive collection of bibliographical material in West Africa. Owing to the acquisition of two important private libraries the Africana section is particularly strong, and an important collection of Arabic material includes 150 manuscripts from Northern Nigeria. The library publishes annually a

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national bibliography which lists all new books, pamphlets and journals, including government publications, published in Nigeria, as well as books about Nigeria or by Nigerians, published overseas.

Of great interest to librarians in West Africa is the projected establishment in 1960 of a library school, attached to the University library, made possible by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. Training is to be related to the examinations of the Library Association, but the University College may itself award a diploma based on library topics of West African significance. This school grew out of the report¹ written by Harold Lancour, associate director, University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, who surveyed the libraries in British West Africa for the Carnegie Corporation in 1957.

The Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, established in 1952, is organized in three parts; a headquarters and the largest academic branch at Zaria in the Northern Region, and other academic branches at Enugu in the East and Ibadan in the West. The college offers arts and science courses to intermediate degree level and professional courses to certification standards. The library likewise is in three parts, all still in temporary quarters, with the main collection at Zaria. The librarian, who has had much experience elsewhere in the Commonwealth, has built up small, but well-selected, collections at each library. A grant from the Carnegie Corporation has been usefully employed in the purchase of American books and bibliographical tools. The staff situation, always chronic in West Africa, has until recently prevented proper organization of the branch libraries in Enugu and Ibadan, and the difficulties of establishing, maintaining, and administering three academic libraries 500 miles from each other, cannot be over-emphasized.

A number of special libraries of importance have developed in the last few years, among them the Central Medical Library in Yaba and the Regional Research Station of the Ministry of Agriculture in Samaru, both under the care of qualified librarians. There are in addition growing libraries at Vom (Veterinary), Lagos (Meteorological Services and several government departments), Benin City (Oil palm research), and Kaduna (Trypanosomiasis). There is no doubt that as qualified staff become available these libraries will become better organized and more efficient.

The situation with regard to public libraries in Nigeria is one more of promise than of achievement. Until recently it might truthfully have been said that in the North there was a library service but no legisla-

tion; in the East legislation but no library service; and in the West neither library legislation nor libraries. The picture has changed in the last two or three years, and provided funds and staff are available in sufficient quantities rapid development can be expected.

The Northern Region was the first to establish a regional library service in 1952, as an activity of the Education Department. The service is based on the library at Kaduna, and the total bookstock is now about 55,000. Issues in Kaduna itself were 110,000 in 1958-59. Outside Kaduna boxes of books are sent to over two hundred members, mostly schools, teacher-training colleges, community centers, and Native Authority reading rooms. Transportation is a major problem, as roads generally are poor, but it is hoped to put a mobile library on the road shortly. Other services include a monthly list of accessions and the ordering of books for individuals and organizations. This latter is a very useful service in West Africa where good bookshops are few.

A branch library at Bida is expected to open shortly, and future plans envisage a library in each of the twelve provincial centers. Any appreciation of the service offered must nevertheless take into account the present and potential demand. The population of the region cannot be far short of twenty million, yet there are only a quarter of a million children in primary schools, and only five hundred pupils will take the West African School Certificate examination this year. For the whole vast area there are only forty-seven teacher training and craft schools, and thirty-six secondary schools, many of them sub-standard. Under able management, preferably divorced from the Education Department, the library service could grow in step with the demands made upon it.

In the Eastern Region, with a population of seven million, the library service has made a flying start with the help of Unesco. A statutory body, the Eastern Region Library Board, came into being in November 1955; and shortly afterwards agreement was reached to establish a public library pilot project in Enugu, the capital. The regional librarian is a fully qualified Nigerian, and during the planning stage he had the assistance for one year of an experienced English librarian. A reference and reading room was opened in Enugu in 1956, and in May 1958 a Unesco gift of \$10,000 was used to purchase a bookmobile to operate an experimental service in a sample area around the town.

The scheme could not be said to have got under way, however, until the opening of the Central Library Headquarters in March

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1959. This library, built at a cost of £40,000 (\$112,000) is an extremely attractive building and will provide an adequate base from which to cover the whole territory.

In Western Nigeria the Ministry of Education is responsible for what reading facilities are available, including a very poor public library in Ibadan. A number of reading rooms, mostly created during the second world war, exist in the region; these are under the control of the local authorities and most of them are moribund as far as book stock and staff are concerned although it may be possible to integrate them with a regional system. Such a service has now begun and a library ordinance will shortly be passed. A site in Ibadan has been earmarked for a headquarters, a qualified librarian appointed, and a book stock of 30,000 is already in existence. With the usual provisos as to staff and finance, there seems no reason to suppose that the Western Region will for long lag behind the North and the East.

In the Federal Territory of Lagos there is one inadequate library to serve a population of about 300,000. Founded jointly by the British Council and Lagos Town Council in 1946, it was taken over completely by the Town Council in 1952. It has for some years been in good professional hands but unfortunately they are no substitutes for adequate financial support. The book stock is about 12,000, annual issues 30,000; the library charges a small subscription and membership is about 3,000. It is unfortunate that the federal authorities have not taken a hand, for Lagos with a literate population estimated at 50 per cent desperately needs a good library. Its present plight underlines the inadequacy of municipal authorities throughout most of Africa to provide the financial support necessary for this purpose.

The school library situation in Nigeria is similar to that in Ghana, one of wide extremes. Probably the greatest factor in the adequacy or otherwise of school libraries is the presence on the staff of someone with sufficient authority and time to insure that a library is created and organized. There are many instances of satisfactory school libraries in the country; the oldest and possibly the largest is the 10,000 volume collection of the Government College, a secondary school at Zaria.

The Colony and Protectorate of Sierra Leone covers approximately 30,000 square miles, and has a population of about two million. It is surrounded by French West Africa except in the southeast where it borders on Liberia. The territory is just about economically viable,

and may be self-governing by 1963. Chief exports are iron ore and industrial diamonds.

Freetown, the capital, possesses a college with the oldest continuous history in West Africa—Fourah Bay College, founded in 1827. It was not until 1955, however, that a qualified librarian was appointed; since then the library has grown rapidly to almost 30,000 volumes, and is now organized to give effective service to the staff and students. A Carnegie grant and, more recently, a Colonial Development and Welfare grant, have improved the financial climate, but staffing has been, and still is, the major problem. A recent Visitation Commission recommended—and this recommendation has since been confirmed—that the College be raised to the status of a university college. The building of a permanent library has been brought forward to 1963.

Other libraries in Sierra Leone are few. The British Council library in Freetown, with a branch in the Protectorate at Bo, provides the only worth-while public library service. The Department of Education has on its staff the only qualified Sierra Leonean librarian who not only catalogs and classifies books for most of the government departmental collections, but gives advice and assistance to secondary school libraries. Progress is possible in the near future. A Library Board Ordinance has just been passed, establishing an organization similar to the Ghana Library Board, and it seems probable that the British Council book collection will once again provide the nucleus of a national library service.

The Gambia has no libraries other than the British Council library in Bathurst, and the territory is so small that its political future lies almost certainly in integration with the surrounding French-speaking countries.

Liberia, an independent republic since 1847, and a country with close ties with the United States, has few libraries other than those in the University of Liberia (15,000 volumes), the Booker Washington Institute, engineering college of the University, and the Cuttington College and Divinity School (8,000 volumes).

The U. S. I. S. Library, operated jointly with the Liberian government, is the only library of any size offering a public service; the government public libraries in Monrovia and Cape Palmas are decrepit and little used. A number of school libraries are maintained in the high schools, particularly those of the Mission Boards.

There have been many joint U.S./Liberian programs since 1950; one devoted to libraries is certainly overdue. A hopeful sign is the

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appointment of Lancour, whose report on West Africa is mentioned above, as an advisor on libraries to the Liberian government during October and November 1959, under the auspices of the Ford Foundation.

In French-speaking West and Equatorial Africa, libraries and library services operate mainly in the capitals and larger towns, and there is little rural service of any kind.

French Equatorial Africa, an area of almost one million square miles, has a population of barely five million people; this includes 25,000 Europeans. Forty-four secondary and one hundred and ten vocational schools have a total enrollment of 150,000, but there is no higher education available, although 150 students are studying on scholarships at French universities. The most important library is that of the Central Government at Brazzaville, with a stock of about 5,000 volumes, open to government officials, teachers and educated Africans. There are a number of "public" libraries attached to culture clubs, scattered throughout the four territories, and containing on the average about 1,000 books.

French West Africa is rather better served. This vast area, almost two-thirds the size of the United States, with a population of nineteen million, has recently become self-governing and seven of the former eight states are likely to remain in the French Community. The eighth, Guinea, is now independent.

The capital, Dakar, contains a number of libraries, chief among them being those of the University of Dakar and the library of the Institut Francais d'Afrique Noire. The former, founded in 1950, has faculties of arts, science, medicine and law, with an enrollment of over 1,000 students. Its library of over 65,000 volumes may also be used by other persons authorized by the Principal.

The library of I.F.A.N., established in 1937, inherited from the Central Government the official library of 2,000 books and 3,000 pamphlets. Bookstock is now over 40,000 mostly acquired through legal deposit and exchange, and the collection is particularly strong in the zoology, botany, history, and anthropology of Africa. Generally speaking the library is open to all who can make use of it.

Special libraries in Dakar include those of the Meteorological Service, the Inspectorate of Stock-breeding, and the Pasteur Institute.

Libraries to which the public have access are numerous, although membership is often restricted in some way. The Cercle Militaire library is open only to serving and reserve military personnel and their

families, but the libraries of the Catholic and Protestant missions are open to all upon payment of a small subscription, as is the library of l'Alliance Française.

A correspondent suggests that the most promising development towards a free library service is the establishment of the Bibliothèque Circulante de Dakar, organized by the Service de la Jeunesse et des Sports. This consists of frequently changed collections at ten schools, freely open to all past and present scholars.

I.F.A.N. has opened centers in several of the larger towns outside Dakar, and these libraries are normally open to the public as well as to students. The library at Saint-Louis de Senegal, for example, is the most important in the town. Opened in 1955, it offers a reference and lending service, and contains 14,000 books, including 6,000 novels, and 6,000 "ouvrages de vulgarisation." A small deposit is charged, and in 1956 the six hundred readers borrowed almost 7,000 books, most of them novels. The total funds available for books and binding in 1957 were, however, only £450 (\$1,260) for a town of 50,000.

France itself, up to a few years ago, had probably the worst public library service in Europe. In recent years much progress has been made, but the old apathetic attitude to public libraries obviously lingers on in her former colonial territories.

The Belgian Congo and Ruanda Urundi have an area of one million square miles and a population of over seventeen million people. There are two universities, at Elizabethville and Leopoldville, mainly for the benefit of the 30,000 Europeans.

The Université Officielle du Congo Belge et du Ruanda Urundi was established in 1955, and its library two years later. The central collection consists of over 14,000 books, 2,000 works on micro-card, and 1,600 periodicals. In addition, over 12,000 books have been purchased for the departmental collections. The total staff includes librarian, two assistant librarians, and four clerks.

The libraries of the General Government, and Documentation Service, in Leopoldville are the only special libraries of note.

The reading public of the Belgian Congo would appear to be somewhat better off than their neighbors in respect of public libraries, at least as far as is indicated by statistics. In addition to Catholic and Protestant Mission collections, there are over two hundred "libraries" for Africans and almost thirty for Europeans. Those for Africans contain an average of about four hundred books, while European libraries are much larger; Leopoldville for instance has over 20,000 and Eliza-

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bethville over 10,000 books. These "official" libraries charge a small subscription, and receive grants and supplies of books from the government. A number of recognized "non-official" libraries are also provided with books. Impressive as these facts may be, a total annual expenditure of less than £3,000 (\$8,400) brings them into perspective. Readers and issues are small, and book selection is quite out of touch with the needs of the populace.

School libraries are virtually nonexistent, except in a few secondary and agricultural schools.

In French North Africa, where contact with Europe has been continuous for many centuries, libraries are larger and better recognized. Algeria, the most advanced of the North African states, has two of the largest and most important collections on the continent.

The Bibliothèque Nationale in Algiers was founded in 1835. From 1862 until 1956 it was housed in the former residence of the Bey of Algiers which, although an excellent example of Moorish architecture of the eighteenth century, was, needless to say, not wholly suited as a library. In April 1954, the foundation stone of a new building was laid, and the resulting structure is probably the largest and most attractive library in Africa.

The total book stock of between four and five hundred thousand volumes is especially important for its material on North Africa and on Algeria in particular. It includes 3,000 Arabic manuscripts, some from the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, and over 27,000 books in Arabic, many dealing with Islamic philosophy, literature, and history. The new building can accommodate two million books and over three hundred readers; it has a large music and record collection (sound-proof rooms are provided); and microfilm and photocopy services are available.

The University of Algiers established in 1879, has faculties of arts, science, law, medicine, and Islamic studies. The 5,000 students and 400 teaching staff have access in the University library to the largest collection of books (outside Egypt) in Africa, over 700,000.

The Pasteur Institute in Algiers, specializing in microbiology and parasitology, has a library of over 40,000 books, and 392 current periodicals.

Public libraries are mainly the responsibility of the National Library which provides books in the rural areas, and of the municipalities which are responsible for the town services. About three hundred centers are served from the National Library, either by the two mobile

libraries, or by book boxes changed three times a year. The latter are deposited at villages, rural centers, schools, hospitals, and prisons, and the service, which is entirely free, is operated by voluntary helpers. Twenty-five small collections have been established in the Saharan oases, and a bookmobile, to serve particularly women and adolescents, is planned for Algiers and its environs. Municipal libraries vary from those in Algiers (central library and nine branches) to those in the smaller towns, such as Bougie, Mers el Kebir, and Djidjelli. Books are provided partly out of municipal funds and partly by the National Library, buildings and staff being found by the local authority. Up-to-date figures on the library at Constantine (population 150,000) give some indication of the kind of service provided. A bookstock of 37,000 is managed by a librarian, an assistant and one clerk. Annual lending issues total about 60,000 and the entire budget, which includes salaries, is two million francs (approx. \$5,700). Comment is not necessary.

Library services in Tunisia are very similar, being based on the National Library in Tunis, which gives a public library service to the town. Over one hundred libraries and deposit stations, mostly in schools, are run by the teachers. A mobile library issues books direct, and also helps with bulk exchanges of books.

The Republic of the Sudan was proclaimed on January 1, 1956. This country of a million square miles and with a population of over ten million has less than 200,000 children at school, and the literacy figure is only six per cent. Nevertheless it possesses the beginnings of a national library service, which may be expected to grow in step with the demand for books.

The largest and most important library in the country is that of the University of Khartoum, originally the Gordon Memorial College. Total stock in June 1958 was over 60,000 volumes, with 1,200 serials. An Arabic collection of 6,000 books has been classified and cataloged by the Anglo-American cataloging code, with modifications required by Arabic script. An annual book fund of £8,250 (\$23,100) is helped out by the free deposit of publications of the United Nations and its specialized agencies, and by the Library of Congress which donates U.S. government publications. It is expected that the staff of sixteen will be entirely Sudanese by 1962.

Special libraries include the Research Division of the Ministry of Agriculture at Wad Medani, containing 6,000 volumes, 21,000 pamphlets and 280 current serials; and in Khartoum, the Stack Medical Research Laboratories library, the Flinders Petrie library of archaeologi-

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cal material, and the Geological Survey and the Sudan Veterinary Service libraries.

Public libraries in the Sudan are of comparatively recent growth, the first genuine public library being established by the Ministry of Education, in 1951, at Omdurman. It is now open to all on payment of a life subscription of ten piastres (28 cents), and currently contains over 16,000 Arabic and 4,000 English books, which may be borrowed for home reading. In addition to a reference and reading room, the library also organizes lectures, debates, and film shows. A mobile van is expected to be available in the near future.

Other libraries run by municipal councils have been established in about ten provincial centers, and the librarian of the Omdurman Central Library gives technical advice. Information on the size and efficiency of these libraries is not available, but in the absence of trained staff and adequate funds they are unlikely to be of great value. The British Council libraries at Khartoum and Omdurman are extremely popular.

The Sudan government is responsible for education throughout the country, and school libraries are provided by the Ministry of Education.

The neighboring country of Ethiopia possesses a National Library of approximately 40,000 volumes and the University College library of Addis Ababa with 23,000 volumes and sixty current periodicals. Both include important material on Ethiopia and large collections in Amharic, the national language.

There is a small Legislative Assembly library in Asmara, but the only "public" library is the United States Information Service library in Addis Ababa.

Apart from a few small collections in secondary, technical, and agricultural schools these libraries represent the sole resources of a country with a population of eighteen million people.

Letters from officials in Bechuanaland and Somaliland have provided the following information. In Bechuanaland, an entirely agricultural country, there are no libraries at all, except readers' clubs for Africans which have been established at one or two of the larger centers. The clubs are voluntary self-supporting organizations, and charge membership fees of two shillings and six pence (35 cents) a year. From time to time they are assisted by the government with donations of books. Schools are encouraged to build up libraries, but direct government assistance has been confined to secondary schools.

In the Somaliland Protectorate there are small libraries in the Secretariat and the Community Center at Hargeisa, in the secondary school at Amoud, and in the Teacher Training College, Sheikh.

The associated countries of Kenya, Uganda, and Tanganyika, which together make up the East African High Commission Territories, have a combined population of twenty millions, including 100,000 Europeans. On the whole, the African population is not so advanced as in West Africa, and educational facilities are poor. Higher education is provided only by one university and one technical college.

Makerere College, Kampala, Uganda, now the University College of East Africa, was founded as a technical school in 1922. Courses leading to general arts and science degrees of the University of London have been offered since 1950. The library serves staff and students, European and African, and a considerable number of "outsiders," such as ex-Makerere students, teachers, government officers and research workers, to whom books are lent by post. The first stage of a main library which will house 120,000 volumes and seat 250 readers, plus offices, bindery, and printing unit, has just been completed. A new medical library branch building, with a capacity of 30,000 volumes, and space for one hundred readers is located at the Medical School about a mile from the College buildings. The main collection consists of 60,000 books and 1,000 current serials, and the library is a legal depository for East Africa. The medical library contains 15,000 books, and 230 serials are received. A total qualified staff of five seems none too many for such an important and rapidly expanding library.

The Royal Technical College of East Africa, Nairobi, Kenya, was opened as recently as March 1956; its departments include arts, science, commerce, and engineering. The library already contains 15,000 books and also houses the collections of half-a-dozen professional associations, in all about 3,000 books. Seating is provided for eighty readers. The professional staff consists of a librarian, three assistant librarians, and four juniors. Training classes are held in the library for the benefit not only of the College library staff, but also for people working in other libraries. Plans are being prepared for a new building to hold 100,000 volumes: a bindery is to be included. It is an official recommendation that the College should become part of a projected University of East Africa and if this happens it will, no doubt, accelerate development of the library.

Collections of specialized material are, as usual, to be found in

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many East African government departments and research establishments. The Medical Research library in Nairobi has inter-territorial importance; and another equally fine collection is that of the East African Agriculture and Forestry Research Organization, with 20,000 books, a bindery and a newly purchased microfiche reader. In Entebbe, Uganda, the Forest Department has a properly organized specialist forestry library, and the Geological Survey has a collection of over 7,000 volumes and 2,000 separates. In Kampala, the Law Library of the Uganda Judiciary is important enough to supplement the collections at Makerere and the Royal Technical College.

The public library facilities which are available are mainly confined to the towns and to the European population. There is one organization, however, which attempts to provide a book service to Africans throughout the three territories. Founded in 1948, the East African Literature Bureau has a four-fold objective, one part of which is the provision of library services; grants from Colonial Development and Welfare funds and the East African governments have been provided for a period up to June 1960. After that date support from C.D. and W. funds will cease.

The Literature Bureau offers book box and postal services, the former consisting of collections of 150 to 200 books, issued free, from a Branch of the Bureau in each territory—Nairobi, Kampala, Dar-es-Salaam—and available to local authorities, schools, social and community centers, etc. Exchanges of book stock are usually made twice a year. Although issue figures are not always kept as well as they might be, the estimated total issue figure for 1957-58 was well over 175,000. Results obtained in the centers vary according to the interest and enthusiasm of the local authority or the voluntary librarian. The total number of boxes on loan is just over 250, and despite the long waiting lists for boxes at each branch of the Literature Bureau, this number is not likely to increase because of the lack of funds.

The postal service has been equally popular, and in 1957 there were almost 5,000 borrowers who read over 55,000 books. The annual report of the Bureau for 1957-58 includes this passage: "In this year the fact had to be faced that, not only must we give up any hope of being able to meet the growing demand for library boxes and for membership of the postal library, but we must take steps to cut down the postal library membership." In a continent where public libraries are still struggling for recognition it is surely ironic to find one that is too successful.

In preparation for the termination of the service in 1960, the Bureau has suggested to the High Commission the need for setting up library boards in each territory, and for obtaining local government contributions towards development of libraries in their areas.

Outside the service of the East African Literature Bureau there are only half-a-dozen libraries worthy of note. All are subscription libraries, which tends to limit their clientele to Europeans, and most of them receive grants from local authorities.

The Macmillan Memorial Library in Nairobi, opened in 1931, is the most important of these libraries. Although until recently books were lent only to Europeans, it is now open to all races, but its annual subscription of 35 shillings (approx. \$5.00), will prevent any rapid change in the composition of its membership. One-third of its annual income consists of grants made by the Kenya Government and Nairobi City Council, and its subscribers numbered 1,638 in 1957. An analysis of additions to stock in 1957 illustrates the weakness of all subscription libraries; an over-emphasis on recreational literature, and only slight provision for children. Out of total additions of 3,837, 2,480 were novels, 559 were in the history, travel, and biography classes, and only 487 were for children. A subsidiary of this library, the East African (Carnegie) Circulating Library, provides a subscription book box and postal service to communities and individuals outside Nairobi. At the end of 1957 there were thirty-nine book boxes on loan and ninety-one postal subscribers.

The United States Information Service and the British Council both have libraries in Nairobi, and there are a number of sectarian libraries, including the Desai Memorial Library and the Ismail Rahimtulla Trust Library.

The Seif bin Salim Public Library in Mombasa is the oldest public library in Kenya, and is open to all races. It owes its existence chiefly to the support of the Indian and Arab members of the community, although an annual grant is now received from the Mombasa Municipality. Present bookstock is about 10,000, more than half of which is in Gujarati; readers total about nine hundred, including one hundred children; and the total annual issues in 1958 were about 26,000. A subscription fee of 12 shillings (approx. \$1.70) a year is charged. Although many Africans use the reading room few of them borrow books.

An interesting development, sponsored by the East African Literature Bureau is the decision of Kiambu African District Council, in

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Kikuyuland, to establish its own library.

Kampala, the commercial center of Uganda possesses a municipal/subscription library, opened in 1953. The cost of the basic stock and equipment was borne by the Uganda Government and Kampala Municipal Council; the former making an annual grant of £200 (\$560). Originally designed as a reference library only, it was later decided to lend books and to charge a subscription and levy a deposit. In 1958 there were 1,140 subscribers, consisting of 92 Africans, 270 Asians, and 778 Europeans. Much useful activity (mainly African) goes on in the Reference library, but with a total book stock of less than 10,000 its impact upon Uganda, or even Kampala, can only be slight. Lending library issues in 1948 totalled 47,000.

The King George VI Memorial Library in Tanga, Tanganyika, was opened in March 1958. A total subscription membership of about 1,000 is almost entirely European and Asian. Financial assistance is given by the Tanga Town Council. A bookstock of almost 7,000 includes 2,000 in Gujarati. Issues in April 1959 were 5,000.

School libraries are almost nonexistent in East Africa. The few that do exist are very well used, and a Carnegie grant of £20,000 (\$56,000) has recently been made to four schools which are to begin courses for the Higher School Certificate.

The Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland is a country whose current political slogan is "partnership." However much of this quality there may be on the political front, little evidence of it is shown—with one or two notable exceptions—in the provision of libraries for Africans.

The University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, at Salisbury, is the only higher educational institution in the Federation. The College, founded in 1955, is open to men and women of all races, and will award the degrees of the University of London. Associated institutes include colleges of agriculture, teacher training, and music. The library, just over two years old, already contains about 35,000 books and 650 current journals. The intention is to build up a large general learned library, able to sustain teaching and research in a wide range of subjects. The collection is already strong in material relating to the Federation. A permanent library building, designed to hold 300,000 volumes and accommodate 500 readers, is due to be completed in mid-1960. Provision has been made for a bindery and a photographic studio.

The main governmental libraries in Rhodesia are those attached

to the Legislative Assembly of Southern Rhodesia, the Federal Assembly, and the National Archives, all in Salisbury. The Legislative Assembly library is the most widely developed collection in the Federation, containing 20,000 books, large pamphlet and map collections, and about 150 periodicals. The Federal Assembly library, founded in 1954, contains about 5,000 volumes, and as the two libraries occupy contiguous buildings unnecessary duplication of stock is avoided. The libraries are primarily reference collections for the Assemblies, but borrowing facilities are extended to members of Parliament, diplomatic representatives, members of the public service, and University College staff and students.

The National Archives library is the national reference collection, and includes material on all aspects of Central Africa. It is the only legal deposit library for the three territories, and contains 11,000 books and pamphlets, 12,500 volumes of newspapers, periodicals and reports, and 8,000 maps, illustrations, and microfilms. Plans for a new building to cost £200,000 have been completed, and construction will begin later this year.

Special libraries in the Federation include the Rhodes-Livingstone Institute libraries, at Livingstone and Lusaka, which specialize in anthropological and social research, and libraries attached to government departments, such as the Geological Survey libraries at Salisbury and Lusaka, and those of the Meteorological Department and the Central African Statistical Office.

The over-all picture of public library services in the Federation is far from a "tidy" one, since no coordinating authority, or legislation, exists on either a federal or territorial basis. Public libraries have been established in townships, as in East Africa, purely as subscription libraries under the control of committees elected from the membership. Even in those cases where Africans are allowed to join the library, the subscription is generally too high for them to pay. There have been movements to secure local authority control and conversion to free libraries but, although grants-in-aid from both local and territorial governments have been general, these aims have met with little success. The difficulty is that territorial governments are not prepared to spend, and municipalities generally cannot afford to spend, the sums required to provide an adequate service.

The two largest public libraries are the Queen Victoria Memorial Library in Salisbury, and the Bulawayo Public Library. Membership is respectively 4,000 and 2,000 and the subscription rate £2 (\$5.60)

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per year. Both libraries receive grants from their city councils and from the Southern Rhodesia government. Annual issues at Salisbury in 1957-58 were 300,000, and at Bulawayo 125,000. Other libraries of this type operate at Umtali, Gwelo, and Gatooma.

In Northern Rhodesia there are subscription/municipal libraries at Livingstone, Lusaka, Ndola, and Kitwe. The Nyasaland Public Library at Blantyre is theoretically open to all races, but the subscription of 50/(\$7) a year no doubt insures that membership is entirely European.

Few Africans make use of the libraries mentioned above, and library services—if such they may be called—have developed separately for Africans. In Northern Rhodesia, where copper-mining employs the greatest labor force, the mining corporations administer libraries for both Europeans and Africans. In addition, libraries and reading rooms are maintained in some towns by Welfare Officers, under the aegis of the Social Welfare Department, and are supplemented by a book box service from the Publications Bureau of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland.

In Southern Rhodesia, libraries have been established by Welfare Officers in African townships, but there is a trend towards establishing libraries in townships forming part of the cities, and a start has been made in Salisbury and Bulawayo. In the rural areas the Native Affairs Department, in cooperation with the Southern Rhodesian African Literature Bureau, supplies a box of books to any Native Council or recommended institution or organization. Most of the books provided are in English, but all the vernacular publications of the Literature Bureau are included. Local voluntary librarians are appointed, and boxes may be exchanged upon request.

Libraries for Africans in Nyasaland are virtually nonexistent. The British Council library in Blantyre lends to anyone on whom the representative has some check. There are eight or nine small collections mainly at Mission Stations, financed by the Ewing Bequest (income £50 or \$140 a year), and the Nyasaland African Library operates a subscription service to individuals and associations. Little progress has been made since these facts were first reported at the Unesco Seminar in 1953.

One of the most important libraries in the Federation is the Southern Rhodesian National Free Library Service at Bulawayo. Although financed solely by the Southern Rhodesian government the library acts as a central library for students throughout the Federation; it

lends books to the public of all races, and acts as a clearinghouse for interlibrary loans. It has never had a large stock of books, nor a large circulation, but it has a special responsibility for technical and commercial literature not provided elsewhere. A union catalog of nonfiction additions was begun in 1955, and in 1958 loans to other Rhodesian libraries were almost 1,000, about 250 books being borrowed from South African libraries.

In general, school libraries throughout the Federation are encouraged by a basic education grant, which may be augmented in the case of European, Indian, and colored schools, by a £1 for £1 grant in those cases where local funds have been raised. This is not normally sufficient to provide adequate libraries, except perhaps in a few schools in the larger towns, and there is seldom separate accommodation for the books, or proper organization. Founded in 1943, the Beit Circulating Library for Schools for many years provided regular refresher stocks to existing school libraries, but recently it has ceased to function.

The Union of South Africa can hardly be called a newly developing country, for although physically a part of Africa, historically, politically and industrially it is a separate entity. The official policy of "Apartheid" not only separates "whites" from "blacks" and "coloreds" within the country but it also divorces the Union from normal contact with the majority of the remaining African states. South African librarians, for instance, were not allowed to attend the Unesco seminar on public libraries held at Ibadan in 1953, although their papers contributed to the success of that meeting.

An adequate account of the individual libraries and library services of the Union is quite impossible and out of place here, but in the interests of completeness, and because library service to whole sections of the community is hardly developed at all, certain major features may be noted.

The Union of South Africa is fortunate in having two national libraries, the South African Public Library in Cape Town, and the State Library in Pretoria. The former, established in 1818 and incorporating an even earlier foundation (The Van Dessen Library) dating from 1761, is the senior library in the Union, and functions as the national reference library for the whole of South Africa. It is a state-aided institution, deriving 80 per cent of its funds from the Union government. The book stock numbers approximately 350,000 items, and includes three important rare book collections (Grey, Dessenian,

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and Fairbridge) and a strong collection of material on Africa south of the Sahara, including unique collections of South African bound newspapers (some on microfilm), blue books, and periodicals. The library has had copyright privileges since 1876. Special attention is paid to bibliographical work, and the library acts as a national bibliographical center, publishing a current national bibliography (*Africana Nova*, quarterly), the Grey Bibliographies series, and the *Quarterly Bulletin* of the South African Public Library. A new extension to the library, with an automatic fire-resisting section for rare books, accommodating, altogether 150,000 works and costing £84,000 (\$235,200), was opened on April 7, 1959.

The State Library, Pretoria, established in 1887, in addition to being a national library, is the oldest public library in the Transvaal, and gives a free public library service to Pretoria. Funds are provided by the state and the local authority. The library houses the National Union Catalogue and since 1933 has acted as the center for national interlibrary loans. Regular lists of the publications and periodicals received under the Copyright Act are published.

Also important at this level is the Library of Parliament at Cape Town. Founded in 1854, and a copyright library since 1951, its book stock is now about 200,000 volumes. In addition to government documents it includes the Mendelssohn library of Africana of about 45,000 items.

The Union of South Africa has nine universities, in addition to the University College of Fort Hare, which is solely for nonwhites. The university libraries at Cape Town, and Witwatersrand (Johannesburg) are impressive by any standards, each holding over 300,000 volumes, and containing many special collections. Other holdings include those at Pretoria (200,000), Stellenbosch (150,000), and Natal (120,000). The universities of Potchestroom, Grahamstown (Rhodes University), and Bloemfontein, have been established less than ten years, but their book collections are all expanding rapidly, the first two having already topped the 100,000 mark. It has been suggested that the Union, with a total white population of less than three million has too many universities. Almost all of them now offer post-graduate courses in librarianship, but the supply of trained librarians is still very far short of the demand.

The University College of Fort Hare is now the only higher educational institution open to non-Europeans. Adequate standards of teaching are maintained only with difficulty, and the courses available are

limited. The library, of about 35,000 volumes, is strong in African native life and languages, but the science and general reference sections are inadequate and reading room space is insufficient. Extensions to the library are planned.

During the past twenty years there has been a rapid increase in the number of scientific, technical, and government libraries of all kinds, in addition to the very important special collections in the national and university libraries.

The Central Government Library in Pretoria coordinates the activities of about thirty governmental libraries throughout the Union, and is building up a union catalog of their holdings, supplementing that of the State Library. Of the fifty or so industrial and scientific libraries, the most important is that of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, Pretoria, established in 1945. Its object is primarily to provide a book and information service to the Council's staff and laboratories, which are concerned with a wide range of subjects, including physics, chemistry, building, nutrition, road research, and mechanical engineering. A monthly annotated book list is produced, and books are lent by post to institutions and individuals throughout the Union.

Typical of the many special libraries existing are those of the Institute for International Affairs, the Institute for Medical Research, and the National Museum (Bloemfontein). Special collections in the Cape Town and Johannesburg public libraries are also important; the former with its Long Street Branch specializing in business, commerce, and industry, and the latter in geology, mining, and engineering. Cooperation between these libraries, perhaps because of their rapid growth, is not all that it might be at the moment, and photocopying services are rare.

Progress in provision of free public libraries has been startling during the past decade. Even as late as 1952 it was noted that of the 250 public libraries, only thirty were free. The growth of the Provincial Library Services in each of the four provinces—Cape, Orange Free State, Transvaal, and Natal—since that date has transformed the situation, and has accounted for the virtual disappearance of the subscription library. In 1949 the Provincial Administrations were empowered to establish free libraries (they were previously only allowed to administer libraries set up by other bodies), and Provincial Library Services were established in each province. Existing libraries are admitted to the scheme, and new libraries and depots started where

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necessary. The usual basis of affiliation is the provision by the existing authority of suitable accommodation with free access, plus a financial contribution of so much per head, or a proportion of the rates. In return the Provincial Service provides books, mobile libraries, technical services, and assistance towards re-organization if required. Although existing libraries are not compelled to join the scheme, the advantages are so obvious that the great majority of them have done so. Not only is a better book service possible, but the local financial grant is often used to provide more and better qualified librarians.

Cape Province, in addition to the normal provincial library service, offers financial assistance of up to 50 per cent to the larger towns, and this has led to a spectacular expansion of the Cape Town City Service. In 1957 schools were allowed to join the scheme, and the Provincial Library Service buys books for them out of education funds.

No account of public libraries in the Union can omit reference to the most outstanding of all, the Johannesburg Public Library. This library has been free since 1924, and in 1957 from its central library and eleven branches it issued nearly three million books. Other important city systems are those of Cape Town and Durban. In the ten years since 1947, the expenditure on libraries in the Union as a whole has risen from £250,000 (\$700,000) to £1,300,000 (\$3,640,000), and issues from six to sixteen million. For a total white population of barely three million these figures are impressive.

The services mentioned above are provided, however, almost solely for "whites"; the provision of library services for "nonwhite" sections of the population being left to the enterprise of the municipalities and voluntary committees of librarians, assisted by grants, mainly from the Carnegie Corporation.

In Natal the service is confined to one branch library in Durban, which in 1957 issued 8,500 books per month, mainly to Asians and "Coloreds"; and to one new branch in Pietermaritzburg for Indians and Africans.

The Non-European Library Service, Transvaal, operates from Pretoria, and a book stock of 8,000 is loaned to personal borrowers through three service points and by post.

Bloemfontein Public Library supplies six centers with boxes of one hundred books, and operates two libraries, one in a Bantu Social Institute and another in a "Colored" district. The total grant in 1957 was £161 (approx. \$450)!

Some improvement has recently been made in service to the "Col-

ored" people in Cape Province, where the Provincial Library Service has operating 150 deposit stations and a book box system. Bursaries for "Colored" librarians are available at the Cape Town University Library School, and a first short training course has been organized by the Provincial Library Service.

In Johannesburg, services to "Colored" and Indian readers, as well as to Africans, have been given for many years by the Public Library. Cape Town City Service also has several branch libraries and a book-mobile.

So far as the large "black" section of the community is concerned, it is now the declared policy of the present Union government to provide libraries for Africans only as part of the general scheme of Bantu education, which falls within the sphere of the (Union) Bantu Education Department. For this reason no facilities for "black" Africans are provided by the four Provincial Library Services. It is possible that the Bantu people of South Africa are not worse off than their fellow Africans in many other parts of the continent. What is depressing, however, is that little progress is likely to be made in the near future, for in addition to the present official attitude there are two great practical difficulties. Firstly, any service to non-Europeans must be a separate service; the simple solution of allowing them to use existing facilities has been officially ruled out. Secondly, such a service must be given by non-Europeans; and trained African librarians are simply not available.

School libraries are largely the responsibility of the Provincial Education Departments, to which are attached library organizers. Most European and some "Colored" schools are financed by grants from Education funds; in the Transvaal and Natal this is a basic grant, plus £1 for each £1 raised locally. In the Cape Province, schools may now join the Provincial Library service.

An attempt to find a trend in library services in a continent such as Africa is akin to the task of finding a pattern in a patchwork quilt. The countries and peoples of Africa are too diverse and their economic, political, and social development too uneven to allow any valid generalizations. It may be useful, however, to comment briefly on certain aspects of librarianship as they appear in the African setting, especially on library associations, legislation, finance, organization of library services, staffing, cooperation, and "outside" assistance.

The South African Library Association is the oldest and largest on the continent, with a membership of around one thousand. Established

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in the early 1930's, and helped by a generous Carnegie grant, it soon undertook correspondence courses, held examinations, and awarded diplomas. Annual conferences are now held, and a lively and informative journal, *South African Libraries*, is published quarterly in English and Afrikaans. Organized on a branch basis, the Association includes Rhodesia and Nyasaland as a Central African Branch.

The West African Library Association was started in 1953, as one of the direct results of the Unesco Seminar on public libraries held at Ibadan in that year. Its membership, of individuals and institutions, is restricted to English-speaking West Africa; annual conferences have been held at Ibadan, Lagos, and Accra; a journal, *WALA News*, is published twice yearly and the Association has made some contribution to the development of libraries, especially in Nigeria.

The year 1958 saw the establishment of two more professional bodies on opposite sides of the continent. The Association pour le Développement des Bibliothèques en Afrique, is primarily for French-speaking West and Equatorial Africa, and is a very welcome sign of a growing demand, among librarians at least, for better public libraries. A first conference is scheduled to take place in Dakar in November 1959, and its program includes papers on national, university, and public libraries. The inaugural conference of the East African Library Association was held last year, near Nairobi, and it too has a great opportunity of making a contribution to an integrated library service for East Africa.

Library legislation in most countries concerns chiefly the public libraries, and Africa is no exception. National and university libraries are interested, of course, in regulations regarding the legal deposit of books and newspapers, and in most parts of Africa the national, university, or chief public library benefits in this way. Relatively few books, however, are published outside the Union of South Africa, and this privilege is not of any great assistance elsewhere in building up a bookstock. As far as public libraries are concerned, it may be said that where they are organized on a national or regional basis, as in South Africa, Ghana, Nigeria, and parts of North Africa, there is library legislation; where they are not so organized the converse is generally true. Legislation is important in defining the objective, providing a legal basis for the actions of the library authority, and obtaining the necessary funds, but it is of less importance than acceptance of the need for libraries and a determination to provide them.

National libraries, in the sense of organizations whose function is

to collect and preserve books, are rare, being present only in South Africa, Ethiopia, Algeria, and Tunisia. In the newly developing countries books are too scarce, and means too slender to provide them, and there is little point in building for posterity when present urgent needs are so largely unmet. S. R. Ranganathan's law, that "books are for use," is as apposite to Africa as to India. In any case, many of the university libraries are, by right of legal deposit and in the normal course of events, building up collections of books published in, and about, their respective countries.

On the whole it can be said that university and special libraries are adequate to meet the demands now made upon them; or are rapidly becoming so. This is not to imply that many could not be better, but even in the worst there is at least some awareness that they are necessary. University and special libraries have this in common, that they have arisen as a result of demand from a specific section of the community who use books regularly, who are aware that books are essential, and who normally have the authority and the funds to see that they are provided. Time and time again it can be seen that the only library of any size or importance in a country is that of the university or college, and it is essential that these libraries should take a liberal view of their responsibilities and make their collections as widely available as possible.

Public libraries show astonishing variety in their organizational and financial arrangements. There are national libraries which give, or aid, a public library service, as in Pretoria, Algeria, and Tunisia; "ad hoc" national and regional bodies, such as the Ghana Library Board, the Eastern Region Library Board, Nigeria, the East African Literature Bureau, and the South African Provincial Library Services; government and semi-government departments, as in North and West Nigeria, the Sudan, Southern and Northern Rhodesia, and French West and Equatorial Africa; municipalities, like Johannesburg, Cape Town, Lagos, Salisbury, and many official, semi-official, and private organizations of all kinds, including especially the British Council and U.S.I.S.

Few local authorities are financially able to provide adequate libraries entirely from their own resources. Not only are most of them too poor, but in much of Africa they are still in the incipient stage. Where local libraries have grown up they have invariably begun as subscription libraries, and the local authority has often later eased its conscience by providing some assistance from public funds.

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This process is typified in East Africa, the Rhodesias, and, until recently, in South Africa. In the Union, however, the Provincial Library Services offer the advantages of books and technical assistance on a regional basis, while still retaining the roots of the service in the local community; and a similar system operates in Algeria.

Where national or regional bodies have been set up, as in West and South Africa, funds are obtained directly from the central or regional government, often with contributions from the larger towns. In Ghana a subscription of 4/- (56 cents) a year for adults, and 6d. (7 cents) for children is charged.

A book service to rural areas can only be efficiently provided by regional or national agencies, and in their general absence there is comparatively little organized rural activity. Although a serious defect, this is perhaps not quite so important as in more developed countries, for in Africa the towns truly possess not only a concentration of potential borrowers, but a concentration of need, and not only of need for books, but for reference and study facilities. The lack of responsible, library conscious, local government and voluntary organizations, which are prepared to act as agents, is also a serious handicap, and the vast majority of local "centers" are therefore to be found in schools.

There are two main difficulties in the path of general improvement in public libraries for Africans. First, there must be a change in the attitude, held in many quarters, that Africans are not yet ready for, and cannot make use of books. The experience of Ghana, Nigeria, and the East African Literature Bureau points the moral that where the right books are available there is a voracious and increasing demand for them. Of course, people cannot appreciate what they have never had the opportunity of experiencing, but once a book service is offered there is abundant evidence that it will be used. Secondly, the lack of qualified African staff is a very serious handicap to progress, and although librarians can be, and are, imported, the availability or otherwise of trained librarians is the biggest single factor in determining the rate of expansion of existing services. Almost every library in Africa of any size is engaged in training its own staff, and even in the Union, where most universities offer professional training, the problem is acute.

Lack of funds is not so important although it is too often put forward as an excuse for a policy of "laissez-faire." Provided the need for public libraries gains acceptance, especially at the highest level,

funds can and will be found.

Book supply to children, either through the schools, or from the public library, is generally poor, or nonexistent. Although in many parts of Africa grants are provided from education funds—either general grants which may be used, in part, to purchase books, or specific book grants—they are seldom large enough to provide what librarians would consider adequate libraries. In fact, it appears that many educationists do not believe in books or reading, even though they pay them lip service. Yet if children do not leave school with an appreciation of the joys of reading, and with the ability and the desire to continue their education through reading, then the schools have failed them. And for this objective a plentiful supply of books is essential.

Even where school libraries occur their effective organization is often difficult, owing to lack of qualified staff. This may be partly overcome by attachment of librarians to education departments, or by close cooperation with the public library service, where it exists. Owing to the chronic shortage of teachers the ideal solution of a teacher-librarian in each school or, at the least, a teacher with special responsibility for the library, is not likely to be attained in the discernible future.

Formal schemes of library cooperation in book supply, and of union cataloging, exist only in South Africa and Southern Rhodesia. In most other countries they are rendered unnecessary by the very limited number of libraries, which usually have informal arrangements for inter-lending. Even when the presence of a book or periodical can be found in another African country, it is often quicker and safer to obtain it, or a microfilm copy, from Britain or the United States. In the last analysis, it is probably true that there is no substitute for self-help.

A survey of African libraries cannot conclude without reference to certain official, semi-official, and private organizations which have made, and are making, a contribution to library development. British Colonial Development and Welfare funds have been allocated to several libraries and library projects. Unesco has provided scholarships for study abroad, organized a Seminar on Public Libraries, at Ibadan, and established a public library pilot project at Enugu in Eastern Nigeria. The British Council, and the United States Information Service, have libraries in almost every part of the Continent, and in a number of countries provide the only worth-while service available. And finally, the Carnegie Corporation. Beginning in the early "thirties,"

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with generous grants to South Africa and Southern Rhodesia, there is hardly a single country, outside the French-speaking territories, which has not at one time or another benefited from its help. Although few trends are discernible in the patchwork quilt of library provision in Africa, at least in help from "outside" there is a recognizable trend of steadily increasing concern and assistance. Long may it continue, for there is much work to be done.

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Patterns of Library Service in the Middle East

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THE "MIDDLE EAST" is a term used loosely and it is not applied to any clearly defined geographical area. For the purposes of this survey of library activity, arbitrary borders are set for the area to be discussed which include the Arabian Peninsula, the United Arab Republic of Egypt and Syria, Jordan, Lebanon, Israel, Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and the Soviet Asian Republics. It is an area that has had a vast influence on the course of man's cultural history, lying as it does at the crossroads of the three continents of the Old World. The patient bibliophile prepared to wander the desert ways from Cairo to Samarqand would expect to find libraries of great richness and he would not be disappointed. It was in these lands between the Nile and the Oxus that man began to understand the cultural necessity of keeping records of the thought and events of his times. The traveler at Persepolis can still see the foundations of a library that served the needs of the Achaemenian Empire 2,500 years ago. At an earlier date libraries are known to have existed in the Nile Valley and at Nineveh, and later in the immediately pre-Christian era, Alexandria and Pergamum came to be the world's two great libraries, but they in their turn were destined to disappear. Much has been lost and pre-Islamic literary records are few. The history of the Middle East is often obscure away from those regions closely bordering the Mediterranean and where Christianity first flourished. How little is known, for example, of that extraordinary mingling of Greek and Buddhist culture in the Hindu Kush region of present day Afghanistan. Time after time some nomad horde destroyed all trace of civilization, leaving nothing save desolation and the ceaselessly shifting sands. The literary and artistic treasures lost in the Mongol inferno and in the sack of cities like Balkh, Herat, Merv, and Nishapur can never be replaced, but what still remains must be conserved and what remains is remarkably rich.

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In more recent times the industrial revolution and the growth of a largely literate urban proletariat, which played a decisive part in the history of the popular library movement in Europe and America, have played no part in the pattern of Middle East development. Only since 1945 has industrialization begun to have an impact in these regions and the cultural upheaval and condition of acute social stress which it is causing, and will cause, can scarcely be less than that experienced a century or so ago in western Europe. The population of cities like Cairo and Tehran during the last two decades has mushroomed with tremendous speed, making the whole educational problem daunting and complex, but not intractable. If technological advances are to be made, if the economic and social conditions of the people are to be improved, if the newly literate are to be helped to find a place in an expanding industrialized and mechanized rural economy, then the setting up of an adequate library service must be considered a first priority. Time must not be lost. An assessment of the somewhat hesitant steps that have been taken in the Middle East towards this goal must now be made and it may be possible, in making the assessment, to point up the major problems and pitfalls in the way of future development and perhaps outline ways in which they may be overcome.

Much of the economic and technological advance planned to take place in the Middle East will be dependent upon adequately trained personnel. The part that the universities must take is therefore a key one, yet many universities have been slow to adapt to the changing needs. A generalized picture of university libraries in the Middle East is a gloomy one. Small faculty, seminar, and office collections abound, leading to a debilitating fragmentation of book resources. Lack of cooperation between the various libraries, and a closed access system combined with inadequate cataloging conceals what strength a university's total book resources may have. Personal rivalries and jealousies and lack of flexibility within the universities themselves have worked against any centralized administrative system although the advantages of this should be obvious to the more far-sighted of the academic staff. Lack of trained and full-time personnel has been only partly responsible for this unhappy situation. Those members of the academic staff who have studied abroad and used the libraries of Europe and the United States have failed to achieve any real understanding of the problems involved in the efficient running of a large research library, and have not realized the amount of behind-the-

scenes work which has to be carried out by a team of bibliographic experts. Hence pressure which has been brought to bear on the university administrations by their own academic staff has rarely been tempered with any real understanding of the problem and many professors have resorted to building their own small libraries and so perpetuating the whole fragmentary system.

Whereas in the West it is axiomatic that the library must be the center of university life, the foundation on which the original scholarship of the academic staff is based, and where the undergraduate is introduced to research method, no such axiom is manifest in many parts of the Middle East. In fact, teaching method is all too closely linked with the use of a few textbooks and lecture notes; the ability of the student being graded by his memorizing powers at examination time. Hand in hand with the development of adequate university library facilities should come a re-evaluation of teaching methods. Without access to books and a comparative and critical approach to the information and ideas they contain there can be no advance. It is difficult to see how there can be any intellectual integrity. The organic interdependence of the university library with the university teaching and research programs must be clearly understood; without this understanding a university is a university in name only.

With a general realization of these barriers that prevent an effective library service to staff and students a rational approach to university library development in the area will become possible. A time-lag is inevitable while phased training of staff who will be capable of running the libraries is carried through. In some cases a start on training and on setting up a central library administration has been made and in the 1960's significant acceleration of the process of development may be expected. An article in *Library Trends* in 1969, ten years from now, may have a vastly different tale to tell.

Not all university libraries in the Middle East suffer from all the deficiencies outlined above. This account has been wholly generalized and because of that specific universities have not been named. Many librarians familiar with the area will know that there are several notable exceptions. Many universities have only recently been founded and they may escape the handicaps that have afflicted older institutions. Among those founded in the postwar years are Riyadh in Saudi Arabia; Tabriz, Shiraz, Meshed, and Isfahan in Iran; Baghdad in Iraq; Bar-Ilan and Tel-Aviv in Israel; the Lebanese National University at Beirut; the University of Ankara and the Technical University of the

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Middle East, both in Ankara, the Aegean University at Izmir, the Ataturk University at Erzurum, all in Turkey (where a further Technical University is planned for Trabazon); Ain-Shams University, Cairo, and Assiut University, in Egypt; Kabul University in Afghanistan; and state universities at Ashkhabad, Frunze, and Stalinabad, in Soviet Central Asia. It is an impressive list. All these universities will have to play a considerable part in the development of the regions in which they are situated. Only in the 1960's will a preliminary assessment of their libraries be possible. Most of them are, as yet, in the purely formative stage.

Special mention should be made of two of the technical universities which, when their expansion programs are completed, should have a far reaching influence on technical and scientific development in the Middle East. They are Technion, the Israel Institute of Technology in Haifa, and the Technical University of the Middle East located in Ankara. Technion at present has a collection of some 75,000 books and receives 1,500 periodical titles. A new library is planned with a capacity of 400,000 volumes. In its early period Technion primarily trained engineers and was not regarded as an institution concerned with research, but in the postwar period much greater emphasis has been given to postgraduate work, thus creating a parallel development in the library and demanding a more specialized service. Three subject specialists are now on the library staff. Previous difficulties in obtaining trained staff should now be overcome with the founding of the library school at the Hebrew University. Plans for the Technical University of the Middle East at Ankara are on a vast scale and when the ten-year building program is completed it is estimated that there will be some 15,000 students and 2,500 teaching and research staff. Teaching is to be in English and students from any country will be eligible for acceptance providing they satisfy the entrance requirements. The Central Library of the Technical University has approximately 30,000 volumes and the collections of the faculty libraries also amount to about 30,000 volumes.

One of the most important libraries in the Middle East is the Jewish National and University Library which holds a unique position in the library world because of the two-fold function which its name indicates. It shares with the state libraries of the Soviet Republics the distinction of being one of the largest libraries in the area and if the collection on Mount Scopus be included in the total figures its holdings amount to almost a million volumes. In its capacity as a

national library it collects works in all subjects relating to the culture and history of the Jewish people, and as the central library of the Hebrew University it collects comprehensively but with particular reference to the subjects of instruction and research in the University's program. The amalgamation of function seems to be a particularly satisfactory solution for Israel, and has resulted in a strong library upon which Israel's smaller libraries can rely for help and bibliographical guidance. One of the chief difficulties under which it works today is the over-crowding of both books and readers. The collections are scattered throughout several buildings, but this situation will change when the new library building on the Givath Ram campus is completed and ready for occupation in 1960.¹ The Knesset Library (Library of Parliament) and the Boorstein Public Library in Nahariya were established by and continue to receive help from the National Library.

National libraries also exist in Egypt, Lebanon, Turkey, and Iran. The function of these libraries is not always "national" in the sense that the word is normally used in library terminology. National libraries, for example, are to be found in Shiraz and Tabriz and other towns in Iran, and in Damascus and Aleppo in Syria. In Iran the provincial national libraries are closer to public libraries in their activities. The confusion arises from use of the word *melli* (meaning national) in their names; it is used in much the same way as "National" might be used for a bank's name in the United States. Only in Turkey, Egypt, and Lebanon do the national libraries approximate more closely to the usual understanding of the term, and in these three countries the national libraries have considerable collections of both European and Oriental books and manuscripts.

The Egyptian National Library, oldest of the national libraries in the area, was founded in 1870. It was formed by an amalgamation of several important libraries that were especially rich in manuscripts and orientalia. Public access to the collection was first made possible in 1904 and since that time the library's rules on public usage have become progressively liberalized. It is now wholly government controlled and financed but during its early history it was endowed with land and received a number of private donations. Its total collection amounts to over three quarters of a million books and manuscripts, and it is without doubt one of the richest libraries in the whole area, including one of the finest collections of Korans in the world. A law of deposit is in force which insures that Egyptian publishers place

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seven copies of all books published in the hands of the National Library.

In recent years the Egyptian National Library has established several branches in Cairo and outlying suburbs which are operated on recognized public library lines, using the Dewey classification system and allowing open access to their collections. The National Library itself, which suffers from severe accommodation problems in its old premises at Bab El Khalq, is planning a new building in a new location with adequate space for its books and manuscripts, rooms for students and research workers, lecture halls, and facilities for displaying the many beautiful and valuable items in its collection.

Turkey's National Library in Ankara has a collection of books and manuscripts in Turkish and other languages totalling about 360,000. It also houses the Turkish National Institute of Bibliography. The National Library of the Lebanon in Beirut, has approximately 100,000 books and 2,000 manuscripts many of which are illuminated. It enjoys copyright deposit of books published in the Lebanon, and is a depository for all United Nations documents. In Iran the duties of a "national" library tend to be shared by three libraries: the Imperial Library, in which is housed a particularly fine collection of manuscripts, the National Library (the Ministry of Education) and the Library of the Majlis (Parliament). The Majlis Library has begun to construct a new large building which should be completed by the end of 1959 and which will enable it to house its collection in a more satisfactory manner than at present. Both the National Library and the Majlis Library are open to the public for research and have moderate sized collections in Farsi, Arabic, and European languages. There is, as yet, no copyright deposit in Iran.

The state public libraries of the Soviet Central Asian Republics in some respects resemble national libraries. Their administrative costs and book funds are included in the state budget, and they receive on deposit a copy of all books published in the Soviet Union. Professional assistance and advice is given to smaller libraries in the Republics, and much bibliographic and research work is carried out by the library staffs. Specialists are frequently sent to help in the organization of the smaller "mass" or public libraries. The state public libraries such as the Pushkin Library in Kazakhstan and the Navoi Library in Uzbekistan have large and comprehensive collections with many valuable and sometimes unique works. The total collections of these two libraries number well over a million books, pamphlets, and

manuscripts, and they specialize particularly in material concerning the area which they serve and in the languages and literatures of Central Asia.

Over the whole of the Middle East, bibliographic control is unsatisfactory, and national bibliographies are infrequent. In some countries a not inconsiderable effort has been made to overcome difficulties. In Turkey, for example, a National Institute of Bibliography was set up in 1952 with wide aims for making Turkey's publications more accessible. It took over the publication of the *Türkiye bibliğrafyasi* which was begun in 1928, and founded the *Türkiye makaleler bibliğrafyasi*, a bibliography of articles appearing in Turkish periodicals. Plans to develop a series of union catalogs have been formulated and some are in the process of being carried out. So far the Institute has been primarily engaged in achieving bibliographic control over currently published material, but it is hoped that eventually it will be able to help make known and accessible Turkey's great bibliographic strength in old printed books and manuscripts.²

Various forms of bibliographic organization are found in other countries of the area, none of which approach the minimum requirements suggested at the Unesco conference on the improvement of bibliographical services held in Paris in 1950. In Israel the Hebrew University and National Library publishes a bibliographic quarterly *Kirjath Sepher* which includes a note of Israel imprints, Judaica and Hebraica published outside Israel and articles concerned with Jewish and Hebraic subjects selected from scholarly journals. In other countries there are journals which are of some assistance in keeping in touch with what is being published. In Iran two journals, *Ketabhayeh mah* and *Rahnamaye ketab*, which give useful bibliographic information, have recently appeared. *Ketabhayeh mah* was started in 1957 and is published by an Iranian publishers' association; it contains articles about books generally, news items of interest to the book world, and advertisements. *Rahnamaye ketab* is primarily literary in character and reviews both Iranian and foreign publications. Notices of most of the important Iranian publications appear. In Iran it is hoped that a national bibliographic center may be set up in the future based either on the Majlis Library or on a new central university library; the latter, however, has not yet reached the planning stage. In the United Arab Republic and Lebanon aids are available. In the Soviet Republics of Central Asia bibliographic organization is largely centralized in Moscow, but comprehensive bibliographies are also brought

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out covering all books published within each Republic whether in Russian or the comparatively large vernacular literatures of Central Asia. Newspapers and periodicals are also indexed.

There are many difficulties in the cataloging and identification of materials in oriental languages, and more work will have to be done in this field before national bibliographies are finally set up in an acceptable form. Foundations have been laid, however, and to quote just one recent example of assistance in the Persian field, there is Nasser Sharify's *Cataloging of Persian Works, Including Rules for Transliteration, Entry and Description*.³

No centrally organized public library system exists in any of the countries under discussion with the exception of the Soviet Republics. Libraries with very limited collections and even more limited services do exist, however, in some of the towns of the area and even in some villages. It is not without precedent to come across a room in a village where a small number of books has been gathered by the villagers (perhaps on some *ad hoc* cooperative purchase scheme) and which the literate members of the community borrow quite freely. The itinerant librarian who discovers such a library cannot but be refreshed for it indicates that comparatively uneducated people have come to realize the value and the need for books. Public library development has been sporadic in the Middle East, and some countries have been able to advance more quickly than others.

In Afghanistan, public library development has been largely the work of Unesco and is at present confined to Kabul.⁴ The library there, although still small, is operated on open access lines and will serve as an effective model for the rest of the country; most of the books are in Persian, but there is also a collection of about one thousand books in English.

In Jordan, public libraries are dependent upon municipal authorities and the Ministry of the Interior. In the Hebron district a co-operative circulating service with a nucleus of 14,000 books has begun to operate. Public libraries have been set up in Irbid and Tulkarm, both of which were assisted by Unesco. Irbid has a new library building and Tulkarm a reconditioned building. Library buildings are now being constructed in Nablus and Ramallah and plans made for the building of public libraries in Amman and Jerusalem. The Ministry of Education is responsible for school libraries, and most schools have small libraries, but the books are usually provided by subscriptions from students.

In Iraq there are public libraries in Mosul, Baghdad, and Basra and one or two of the smaller towns. Mosul's activities in the past few years have been noteworthy. Its collection totals about 26,000 volumes many of which are available for loan and are on open access. The children's section is kept in a separate room where story hours and puppet shows are sometimes held, and children are allowed to borrow from it. In 1958 Mosul had plans for a bookmobile service.⁵

In Kuwait the Education Department controls a central library which in turn is responsible for the central public library and its three branches. The Education Department also aids in the distribution of books to eighty school libraries, the largest of which is the Boy's Secondary School which has 10,000 books. The Dewey classification is used in all Kuwait libraries but modified to some extent in the school libraries. Plans for a new building for the central public library are now being made and it is hoped that branch libraries will be established in all Kuwait's suburbs.

In Turkey public library development is still in its early stages although several of Turkey's towns, such as Konya, have public libraries. But their services and collections are limited; although they quite often own a few valuable manuscripts there is very little modern material. In recent years there has been a tendency to concentrate on services to children. The Public Libraries Division of the Ministry of Education has established over eighty children's libraries. The Ford Foundation has also encouraged the setting up of model libraries in some of Turkey's experimental schools, and the Library Institute at the University of Ankara has been instrumental in helping them to become established.

Rather similar situations, as far as adult public library services are concerned, are found in the United Arab Republic, Iran, and the Lebanon. Small libraries have tended to grow haphazardly in some of the towns. In Egypt progress is being made in the school library field, and the Ministry of Education has been active in promoting development.

There is a large number of public libraries in Israel, but no Israeli librarian would claim that they are sufficient for present needs; due to the lack of trained staff many quite important collections are inadequately administered or housed. There are, however, some libraries that would stand comparison with those of Europe and the United States and among these is the public library in Tel-Aviv-Yafo, the largest public library in Israel. A central library of some 140,000 books,

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together with a number of specialized collections and branch libraries throughout the city area, provide a service for the student and general reader. Books in many languages are included in the collection, reflecting the diverse backgrounds of those using the library and, incidentally, pointing up one of Israel's major problems. There is no legislation in Israel regarding library development but the Israel Library Association has prepared a draft library law and hopes that the government will be able to deal with it in the future. Libraries are maintained for the most part by local authorities; Tel-Aviv-Yafo is wholly maintained by the municipality. The history of the Tel-Aviv library is of particular interest as it has been able to incorporate within the one system a number of specialized libraries hitherto functioning separately. The advantages that have accrued from amalgamation and centralized processing and staffing are considerable. The Federation of Labour has also helped in the organization of libraries throughout the country.

In the Soviet Central Asian Republics the development of "mass" or public libraries has been little short of dramatic. Although it is sometimes difficult to get beyond the statistics which are published, these alone tell a story of remarkable achievement.⁶ Utilizing many outlets, including schools, collective farms, factories, and cultural centers, books of all types are made available to the people. The network of smaller libraries is backed by regional libraries and the State Library of the Republic. The state public libraries hold a significant position; in addition to acting as depositories for all works published in the Soviet Union, they act as advisers to the smaller libraries within the Republic and centralize bibliographic aids. The public libraries are general in their scope but have tended to concentrate on technical and agricultural books and journals in order to help the people become more efficient in their own particular work. Apart from the large number of static libraries that exist in all the Central Asian Republics mobile libraries and postal services are operated extensively throughout the region, and a comprehensive coverage of the population has been achieved. In few countries has the importance of library services in economic development been more clearly understood than in the Soviet Union; this factor has often been overlooked in Western assessments of the Russian library scene which have tended to emphasize the political duties of the libraries.

There are many libraries in the Middle East of a semi-private nature but generally available to scholars and research workers. Some

are associated with religious orders and others with foreign archeological missions and similar bodies. Examples include the libraries of the Oecumenical Patriarchy in Istanbul, the Institut Francais d'Etudes Arabes at Damascus, the Library of the Shrine at Meshed, and many others, often with very fine collections. The golden age of great private libraries in the western world passed many years ago, and most of the manuscripts and printed books of major significance have found their way into national, university, and public collections. The same is not true of the Middle East. Many great private libraries still survive and many of them contain valuable and unique works. In all areas of the Middle East collections of this type are to be found, but some of the richest and some of the least known are in Saudi Arabia. In the days when Islamic culture was at its height the libraries of Mecca and Medina were perhaps the most important in the area and their contents totaled hundreds of thousands of books and manuscripts; but in later years, through neglect, much has disappeared. During the reign of late King Abd al-Aziz ibn Saud there were attempts to preserve and reorganize what was left. The Maktabat al-Haram (Library of the Sanctuary) at Mecca is an instance of one of the libraries reorganized during this time. Smaller private libraries exist in Jedda, Ta'if, and Riyadh. The library attached to the Great Mosque of ibn 'Abbas at Ta'if has been seriously depleted by manuscript hunters, and what remains is only a minor significance. Medina is still, perhaps, the city with the most valuable libraries in Saudi Arabia. It has over fifty known libraries, the three most important of which are the Library of the Shaikh al-Islam 'Arif Hikmat al-Husaini, the Library at Bab al-Majidi belonging to the Prophet Mosque, and the Mahmudiyah Library at Bab al-Salam.

In many libraries, scholars and research workers are welcomed but unfortunately other library owners are not very cooperative. With some libraries western scholars have had little or no contact; with the libraries of Mecca and Medina personal contact has been impossible. Only in a few cases are there detailed accounts or catalogs of the holdings of such libraries, and as a consequence their collections are difficult to assess. Many of the great private and semi-private collections are without doubt of great cultural and historical importance; many of the unique items in them should be microfilmed as soon as possible if their conservation is to be assured, and for most of the illuminated books and manuscripts color photography techniques should be employed.

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Special libraries of importance in the Middle East are few. Government departments maintain small collections in all the countries of the area but in few cases are these of any real significance. Most of the main scientific special libraries are in Soviet Central Asia and Israel. One of the most important events in recent Israeli library history was the completion and opening of the Wix Library of the Weizmann Institute of Science at Rehovoth in October 1958. This is a fine example of modern library architecture in which the cooperation between architects, engineers, and the librarian has produced a building both visually exciting and functionally effective. The stack area of the Wix Library can accommodate 62,500 books and it could be doubled by addition of a deck above the present shelving. The librarian hopes, however, that judicious withdrawal of obsolete books and microfilming where conservation is necessary will make expansion of this order unnecessary. The Wix Library has photographic equipment which will help it in this program, and it expects to exploit it to the full.⁷ The library is a pointer, in fact, for scientific libraries throughout the Middle East, and anywhere else in the world where phototechniques are not used or where their potential remains unrealized.

Little experiment or research has been done in the area on the use of mechanical or electronic equipment for information retrieval, although in Cairo a system of superimposable punched cards is used successfully by the Scientific and Technical Documentation Division of the National Research Center of Egypt for the location of articles in periodicals. About 1,500 periodical titles are covered, and it has been reported that the punched card system "has been found useful both by the staff of the library and by readers, who soon learn to employ it."⁸

In postwar years professional assistance has been given to many Middle Eastern countries by outside agencies. Unesco, the most active, has been directly responsible for many significant developments. Its work has covered most fields of librarianship but recently it has tended to concentrate on library training and the provision of experts. The United States and Britain have also helped in several countries, the United States through the United States Information Service, the Technical Assistance programs and Fulbright lectures; and Britain through the British Council. U.S.I.S. and British Council libraries, by their policy of open access and by loans of books, have stimulated other library development and their librarians have given professional advice

and assisted in many ways in the organization of libraries in the area.

Oil companies have also been active in the library field. Aramco in eastern Saudi Arabia has built up several flourishing libraries of a technical and general nature. Their central library is located in Dhahran with branches in Abquaiq and Ras Tenura, and there are smaller collections in isolated places and in exploration camps. The libraries are backed by professional and technical help from Aramco offices in New York and other parts of the world. A real effort has been made to acquaint the Saudi Arabian staff with the services offered by the libraries; this has included the teaching of English. Aramco's information services are not restricted to the company's needs and informational help is frequently given to outside companies and organizations.⁹

Professional associations have been established in only a few countries in the Middle East. Turkey, Egypt, and Israel have had associations for some years and it is hoped that a Lebanese Library Association may shortly be formed. Lack of an association in most of the other countries is a measure of the lack of cooperation and professional awareness of those working in libraries. The seminar planned by Unesco to be held in Beirut late in 1959 may help, however, to provide the necessary incentive to form professional associations in those countries which lack them.

The need for library training centers in the Middle East is now acute. Not only will librarians be required in increasing numbers in universities, but as education moves into its modern phase, librarians will be needed in the schools, in training colleges, in the cities and rural areas, as well as in special libraries serving the new industries.

Formal training at university level is available so far only in Israel, Turkey, Egypt, and the Central Asian Republics. In Israel and Turkey, the establishment of library schools is a recent development. The Israel Graduate Library School, helped in its early stages by a Unesco report,¹⁰ announced its opening in November 1956 as part of the Hebrew University. Its preliminary announcement and course prospectus stated that the purpose of the training would be "to develop in students an appreciation of the important role of the library in human civilization, knowledge of books and bibliographies, understanding of the needs and habits of library users—be it scholars or newly literates—and comprehension of the principles and procedures for bringing books and people together."¹¹ It was also made clear that education for librarianship must be based on a wide subject

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background and that preference would be given to graduates applying for entry into the School. Only in the first few years of the School's operation would nongraduates be considered, and then only if they had a good background of library experience.

The report made by Lawrence Thompson in 1952 on Turkish library development strongly recommended setting up a library school in either Ankara or Istanbul University.¹²⁻¹⁴ Since then a Library Institute has been founded within the University of Ankara and is an accepted part of the university. The first class graduated in 1958. The Ford Foundation has helped with its establishment and the American Library Association will continue to supervise its work until 1961, by which time it is hoped that the Turkish faculty will be able to take over the teaching program. Long term technical assistance on this pattern will be necessary in those countries where library schools have yet to be established.

In Soviet Central Asia several training centers for librarianship have been established. They are staffed principally by graduates of the Moscow, Leningrad, and Kharkov State Library Institutes. The number of training centers has grown over the last few years as the demand for skilled library workers has increased. Some of the library schools are closely linked with colleges and universities, an example being the newly established Department of Library Training at the Kazakh Teacher Training College for Women.

Short training courses undertaken by Unesco and to a lesser extent by other agencies in Iran, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Afghanistan, and Jordan have undoubtedly helped to promote library development. In Lebanon, the Beirut College for Women and the American University at Beirut hold courses for librarianship. The College for Women runs regular courses and grants a certificate. The Arab States Fundamental Education Centre at Sirs-el-Layyan, founded in 1952, has been able to show its students the importance of libraries in economic and cultural development. Part of the A.S.F.E.C. program is to establish a library system within Menoufia Province in the Nile Delta which would act as a model for development in other Middle Eastern regions with similar problems. A training program in librarianship is part of the Centre's activities and it maintains its own library.¹⁵ The whole question of training is a basic one and must receive priority, for libraries cannot develop without enthusiastic and reasonably able staff.

Several important problems of the area remain. They relate mainly

to the fundamental purposes of libraries, the need for many kinds of cooperation, the professional frustration experienced by some qualified librarians, and the desire of Middle East librarians to live in capital cities.

The over-riding principle of the need for conservation is felt deeply over the whole area. It is the cornerstone of much Arabic and Persian thinking about libraries and rightly so when such a valuable heritage is concerned. The principle has been projected, however, into those areas of library activity where preservation is of secondary importance, and it is inhibiting the advance towards a more dynamic concept of a library's *raison d'être* in keeping with the needs of contemporary society. The idea of a popular open access library cannot easily be grasped. Traditionally, library users have been theologians or philosophers, content to base their metaphysical speculations on small, and jealously guarded, collections of manuscripts and printed books. Reading has been intensive and only rarely extensive and comparative. It is an absurd anachronism for contemporary public, university, and special libraries to concern themselves unduly with preservation and in those libraries where the librarians are responsible for safeguarding each and every item in the collection, with no power to discard and obviously no incentive to lend, a complete rethinking of a library's purpose is necessary.

Another major problem to be faced in the Middle East is the need for cooperation between libraries. Cooperation in some cases could be extended even to amalgamation and the pooling of such professional resources as are available. Recommendations for union cataloging projects, which have frequently been made by visiting experts, could serve as a basis from which libraries and their librarians could develop a coherent over-all policy at the regional or national level. Close cooperation or amalgamation will not come easily, but where it has been achieved it has shown definite advantages, both in the service to readers and in economies of cooperative purchase and centralized cataloging.

A most unfortunate aspect of librarianship during the past few years has been the drift out of the profession of a few of the Middle Eastern librarians who have received excellent training abroad. Administrative factors, such as inadequacy of status and salary, are largely responsible for this as well as the frustrations suffered when attempting to employ newly learned skills and the constant psychological strain of the battle with entrenched ignorance. It will some-

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times be necessary to create new posts in order to by-pass older and senior personnel who have had no training and who are not prepared to accept new ideas. Administrative rationalization will have to come later. It is extremely important that well-trained librarians should not be allowed to become inactive and frustrated to such an extent that they leave the profession.

A growing professional middle class brings with it social problems which will have to be faced as the number of trained librarians grows. One difficulty which is already being faced by other professional groups in the Middle East is the desire to live in the capital city. Hard won improvements in a personal standard of living are not relinquished easily, and to live in the smaller provincial towns or in rural areas in the Middle East does undoubtedly jeopardize living standards. It is possible that some form of incentive bonus system may have to be introduced at first in librarianship in many parts of the Middle East if capital cities are not to become professionally overpopulated at the expense of the provinces.

All these problems are part of the wider pattern of development in the educational and social field, and they will not be solved without paying due regard to that wider field. The contemporary significance of books, periodicals, and other communication media for economic development of a country has not been generally realized in the Middle East. Books are not turned to automatically for informational purposes, and until they are libraries will be regarded as something of a luxury. The cultural importance of storing historical and literary materials is more clearly understood. Once the related idea that the library is a primary aid in scientific and economic advance has been grasped, the Middle East can look forward to a period of considerable library expansion and consequent enrichment of the lives of all its people.

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nearly 4,000,000 live in its capital city, Buenos Aires, but over the undeveloped rural areas, the population is widely scattered. Brazil covers more than 3,000,000 square miles, and although Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo are among the most modern cities of the New World, vast areas in the Amazon basin are still dense tropical jungle. It is not surprising, therefore, that the problems facing public authorities which establish popular library services in these countries are far more complex than those that confront library authorities in, for example, the British Isles with its 51,000,000 inhabitants occupying an area of 93,000 square miles.

Within recent years Latin America has known a new political and economic stability. This has resulted in an influx of many thousands of people from mainly agricultural rural districts into the industrial towns that have suddenly sprung up and in a radical change in the educational and recreational needs of these people. There has arisen a new emphasis on technical knowledge and an ever-increasing need for technical literature. Many Latin American countries are no longer mainly producers of primary products but have also become important in world markets as producers of manufactured articles.

Another factor responsible for accelerating the tempo of activity has been the great expansion in publishing facilities. The printing presses of Argentina, Chile, and Mexico now make substantial contributions to the literature produced for the Spanish-speaking countries of the world.

Balanced against these factors are certain conditions which have retarded development. Lack of adequate legislation for the machinery of a true public library service has hampered its growth in many countries. A chronic shortage of money has had the same effect. The authorities already had to stretch their budgets to provide basic educational services, and money for a library service was considered second priority. Today, the system of securing bookstock by "exchange relations" is still widely used to augment inadequate book votes in both public and special libraries. In the past it has been difficult and in some cases impossible to recruit trained librarians, mainly because no fully established library schools existed in Latin America before 1940. In spite of carefully-planned educational programs, the rate of illiteracy in some of the Latin American countries is still high. Argentina, Cuba, Chile, and Panama have the largest literate populations, and these countries are among those which have taken the greatest strides ahead in the public library movement.

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Conditions similar to those in Latin America existed in the West Indian islands when E. A. Savage made his survey of the libraries of Bermuda, the Bahamas, the British West Indies, British Guiana, British Honduras, Puerto Rico and the American Virgin Islands in 1934.¹ The islands themselves are more thickly populated than the countries of Latin America (Barbados boasts the fantastic population density of 1,398 persons per square mile), but distances between them constitute a formidable barrier, especially as communications are expensive and often unreliable; and at the time of the Savage report there were five separate governmental units to take into consideration in the territory the projected library service was to embrace.

N. G. Fisher in his later report in 1953, *Library Aspects of the Caribbean Seminar*,² pointed out that if an adequate library service was to be established and maintained in the Caribbean islands, financial support must come from outside. Time has proved this to be a very accurate appraisal, because the only significant developments that have taken place in these islands have been brought about, first by Carnegie Corporation funds, and then by British Council and Colonial Development and Welfare aid. As in Latin America, it was an arduous task persuading government authorities that library services were deserving of substantial financial support.

Nevertheless, in the library world of the Caribbean and Latin America the past twenty years show achievements such as had never been known in these areas before. The "Fairy Godmother" waved her wand and the man-in-the-street in the British West Indies received the wonderful boon of a free public library service. Some years later when another "Fairy Godmother"—Unesco—waved her wand at Medellin in Colombia, it took some time for users of the new public library to grasp the fact that they could borrow a book to take home without paying an additional tax.

Improvements in library services have been marked only in those countries where satisfactory legislation has been enacted. In Panama, for example, a change of legislation in 1946 inaugurated a public library system.

On the other hand, many Latin American libraries still function under ordinances now in need of revision. The statutes at present in force in Brazil, Uruguay, and Chile are modelled on Argentina's library law instituted by President Sarmiento more than fifty years ago. Argentina has kept abreast of changing ideas by amending its statutes and introducing new legislation. Public libraries are now controlled

by regulations drawn up by the Commission for the Promotion of Popular Libraries in 1946. Several years later the Instituto Bibliotecológico at the National University in Buenos Aires was created by ordinance. More recently still the newly-formed Federation of Librarians has decided that there is need for completely new regulations covering the status, qualifications, and remuneration of professional librarians, and a Librarians' Statute is being drafted for submission to the government.

This defined status for librarians is recognized in the Latin American library world to be essential. It has already been achieved in Cuba where Decree Law No. 2004 of 1955 specifies that graduates of the school of librarianship at the Havana University are "deemed to be legally and officially qualified for the exercise of the profession. . ." Legislation has also been used as a means of raising money for library services in Cuba. In 1941 a new law imposed a duty of .005 pesos on every sack of sugar produced in order to pay for the new national library.

In the British West Indian islands, inauguration of the Eastern Caribbean Library Scheme and implementation of the Bateson Report³ in 1945 set off a chain reaction that resulted in changed legislation in almost every island. Jamaica led the way with the Jamaica Library Act of 1949, followed, also in 1949, by Trinidad. Thereafter the law was amended in Grenada, St. Kitts, Dominica, Nevis, St. Lucia, Antigua and most recently in St. Vincent in 1950 and Montserrat in 1951. Barbados required no change in legislation as machinery for the existence of a free library service had been available since 1847.

The law as it existed in British Guiana covered Georgetown, its capital, only. Subsequent amendments now allow the public library to cover the regions immediately outside.

The Jubilee Public Library Service in British Honduras functions under an ordinance passed in 1935 and its subsequent amendments. Qualified librarians there, however, are not satisfied with the scope of existing laws, and a bill is to be placed before the Legislative Assembly for the enactment of new library statutes.

In the American Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico, the Library Services Act passed by the United States Congress in 1956 has been responsible for great expansion in library services.

The capital cities of all Latin American countries possess national libraries. Many of them house valuable collections, but due to a general lack of organization some have never been fully exploited. A home

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lending service has been the exception rather than the rule with the result that students have been forced to use their national libraries for reference purposes only. In El Salvador, where the National Library operates four branches in the city of San Salvador, and in Guatemala and Costa Rica attempts have been made to offer a public service, but in each case they have fallen short of standards accepted in countries with well established services.

Argentina stands out as one of the Latin American countries with a progressive policy towards its popular libraries. In the past there have been hundreds of small libraries of varying degrees of organization and efficiency, some of them established and operated by groups of people who recognized the need for a library service and were prepared to do what they could to better the situation. In many municipal libraries the staff was voluntary and untrained. In 1946 the Commission for the Promotion of Popular Libraries carried out a survey of all libraries offering service to the public with a view to taking such action as it considered necessary for the standardization of practice and the improvement of their administration. One aspect of the situation that caused great concern was the dire lack of professional librarians. A direct result of the recommendations of this Commission was the setting up of two new programs of library training in Buenos Aires. The Commission has also been responsible for obtaining increased subventions for several libraries, for making substantial contributions to their stocks by gifts of books and for the publication of the *Guía de Bibliotecas Argentinas* which has been invaluable in promoting interlending among libraries.⁴

Up till 1946 the National Library at Panama City offered reference service only. In that year it began to function as a Department of Libraries and Exchanges under the Ministry of Education. Immediately a program covering the whole country was planned. The first need was an increased book vote which was provided by the government. The country was then divided up into ten zones, each having its own central library. Where it was impossible or not feasible to establish a branch library a deposit station was set up, the intention being that as soon as these stations, temporarily manned by voluntary unpaid librarians, became large enough to warrant a branch, provision would be made for its establishment and for the salary of a librarian. In order that the service provided by deposit stations should be as effective as possible, the voluntary staff were given instructions on basic library techniques.⁵ Unfortunately, funds were inadequate for

the program as planned, but a stout framework has been constructed and embellishments can be made as time and money permit.

In Brazil steady economic prosperity over the past twenty years has resulted in the rapid development of fundamental educational programs. Library services in this country were so well advanced that as far back as 1942 the Serviço de Intercambio de Catalogação, a division of the Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público was able to initiate a cooperative cataloging scheme with printed cards, cataloged in accordance with the Vatican Code, for the benefit of any Brazilian library wishing to participate in the scheme. The Instituto Nacional do Livro functions as a regional headquarters offering help to libraries all over the country, especially to those in poor and backward rural districts. It supplies them with books and, more important still, with technical assistance. Every method of transportation from the airplane to the canoe is employed by this Institute in order to reach inaccessible parts of the country. Valuable work is also done by the Industrial Social Service (S.E.S.I.) established and organized by the National Confederation of Industry. Since January 1948, S.E.S.I. has included among its adult education activities the operation of a traveling library carrying book chests for delivery to service points all over the country. "The object . . . is to provide industrial workers with reading matter of an improving nature and also with wholesome recreation for their leisure hours."⁶

When Unesco decided to hold a librarians' conference on Latin American soil, the choice of São Paulo was an easy one. This ultra-modern city with its municipal library twenty-four stories high, provided visiting conference librarians with excellent examples not only of public but also of university and special library services. In addition there was a mobile library service operating in suburban areas. The conference, which brought together 119 Latin American librarians from sixteen different countries,⁷ has contributed more than any other single event towards stimulating interest in bibliographical activities. It has fostered a sense of camaraderie among librarians and has spurred them on to great achievements in the past eight years.

Most spectacular among the results of the São Paulo Conference was the Unesco Pilot Project at Medellin in Colombia. To those who have enjoyed the benefits of public library service all their lives, the miracle of Medellin will not appear in all its glory. But librarians at work in the Caribbean have come to accept a heart-rending sight as part of the day's work—that of children waiting outside the libraries and

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around the bookmobiles week after week, with that unmistakable look of longing and undefeated hope in their eyes which only the coveted library ticket will satisfy.

The story of the creation of the Medellín library is now a familiar one, but because of its significance in the pattern of development it is appropriate to trace its history. The agreement between Unesco and the government of Colombia that brought the library into existence stipulated that the project should be operated jointly for the first five years before it became autonomous. It is now an independent institution managed by a board and financed only by the government. The reason for the choice of the site in Medellín is worthy of mention; a thickly populated industrial area in a district with four universities was selected. Assurance was obtained beforehand that the local educational and municipal authorities were willing to accept this new concept of a library service as an essential part of the social and cultural lives of their citizens.

As it turned out, the project was a resounding success, above all because it demonstrated to the rest of Latin America the tremendous impact that books can make upon peoples' lives. The ideal conditions under which it operated made a heavy program of extension work linked with books possible—story hours for children followed by discussions, concerts for adults and children from a well selected gramophone library, organization of listeners' groups—all those services which to the average librarian in an underdeveloped country are textbook recommendations became a reality which could be witnessed and copied by other Latin American countries. When the first branch library was opened six miles from the new central library, it was not one of the upper class residential suburbs that was chosen but an overcrowded working class area; thus the library is stretching out its strong arms to reach those who most need its services.

The coordination of library services within each country has been one of the aims of Latin American professional librarians in recent years. This has been achieved in Medellín and has resulted in improvement in the assistance which the country's bibliographical resources can render to student and worker.

The changing pattern in popular library services was reflected in other parts of Colombia. When the Marco Fidel Suárez Library was opened at Bello, a thickly populated industrial town, the library authorities were so conscious of the potentialities of the new service that they spared no pains to provide the best that was available. Technical

advice on planning and organization was sought and given by the director of the Medellin library and the building was designed by the same architects.

In 1957 Peru opened its new Biblioteca Publica Municipal at Callao, a busy port near the capital city of Lima, with a large working class population, mostly dock workers. A point of interest in this particular project is that the municipal authorities and the Ministry of Education collaborated with excellent results. As in Colombia the influence of the São Paulo Conference is evident; the new library provides a service the like of which has never before been witnessed in Callao. It is manned by trained librarians; it has open access; it provides not only reference facilities but also a home lending service which is not to be taken for granted in Latin America. To complement the service offered by the central library, Unesco has donated a book-mobile so that coverage includes those who are unable to make use of the central library. The children's library, attractive, up-to-date and operated on American lines, has been a huge success. A full program of extension work is being conducted with all the trimmings that American children enjoy. Since this service was a new venture some experiments in the reading ability and tastes of the children were done by the library staff so that book selectors could gauge the effectiveness of the literature provided and be guided in their future choice.

In the West Indies activity has been channelled in several uncoordinated streams. Cuba, Haiti, the Dominican Republic and, to some extent, Puerto Rico, have identified themselves with developments in Latin America. The French West Indies and the Netherlands Antilles have followed separate patterns. Jamaica, the British Eastern Caribbean, British Honduras, and British Guiana have grown simultaneously along similar lines; partly because of geographical isolation the Bahamas have not been able to identify themselves with developments in the other British territories. The American Virgin Islands, the only English speaking territories not under British rule, have also taken an independent course, but they have managed to overcome this separation from the other islands by maintaining an interlending service with the British Virgin Islands.

In Cuba, as in Argentina, there are a number of small uncoordinated libraries, some of them financed by the government and some by private enterprise. Municipal libraries exist but with few exceptions they only scratch the surface of popular needs. In 1949 the Biblioteca Pública de la Sociedad Economica de Amigos del País, partly sup-

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ported by government funds, decided to reorganize its services. The Library of Congress, always interested in improvement of library services in the Caribbean, sent expert help, and funds for a new building were supplied by the government.⁸ During the past ten years thousands have benefited by the greatly increased reference facilities this new public library offers. In February 1958, another new library, the Biblioteca Nacional José Martí, was opened to the public with every feature that can be desired of a national library. Lending and reference sections, a museum, a music room, a smoking room, workshops, a theatre, an exhibition room, and even a snack bar are included. One other feature deserves special mention—a room intended for the research worker where the material on which he is working can be reserved for him as long as he needs it.

Puerto Rico's public library headquarters in San Juan is one of many Carnegie libraries established in the West Indies at the beginning of this century.⁹ A considerable increase in the book vote in 1956 enabled the library authorities to achieve complete coverage of the island with a service which now has a total of three hundred branch libraries and eighteen bookmobiles in operation.

Under the same scheme of expansion, the American Virgin Islands were able to make improvements in their library services. The Bureau of Libraries and Museums of the Department of Education is responsible for all public and school library services. It is a vigorous active body. Since 1956 the public library at St. Thomas has established a branch library on the island of St. Croix with a bookmobile to complement its services.

In the Netherlands Antilles a unique pattern of development has occurred. In the small population of 187,000 there is a predominance of Dutch-speaking people, but there are also sizable minorities who speak English, Spanish, German, and French. In addition, the local patios Papiamento, which is a delightful melée of English, Dutch, and Spanish, is also widely spoken. Library services are specially geared to cope with this diversity of languages. A union catalog has been printed in four languages, and Aruba's library is designated to be the repository for the rapidly growing collection of literature and fugitive material in Papiamento.

In Curaçao the Openbare Leeszaalen Bibliotheek under the care of the Department of Education has been completely reorganized since it moved to new premises, a wing of the Department, in 1945.¹⁰ This service is complemented by the Stichting Wetenschap Pelijke Biblio-

theek (Scientific Library Foundation), established in 1950 as a free library open to the public and supported by government funds. This latter deals with requests for specialized material from a bookstock which covers pure science, technology, classical languages, and theology. To facilitate the work of students and research workers the lending period for books and periodicals is one month. A union catalog of all technical books in the Netherlands Antilles is maintained and micro-reading apparatus is provided.

The public library in Aruba was established in 1949 in a splendid new two-story building in Oranjestad. Aruba has one of the largest oil refineries in this part of the world and the public library has to cater for a number of workers pouring in from neighboring islands. The demands on the new library were so great that by 1951 the original circulation figures were almost doubled.¹¹ By 1952 the library service had gained enough strength to open a branch library on the tiny island of St. Nicholas; by 1958 this venture had grown to a point where it justified a full scale library. A special collection of books in the Frisian language is included among the bookstock in the Aruba Public Library for the benefit of the island's Frisian families. In the islands of Bonaire, Saba, and St. Maarten, library services have been established, but they are still in the embryonic stage.

In Surinam (Dutch Guiana) the Colonial Library founded more than one hundred years ago has been reorganized several times. Among its holdings is a large collection of very rare old maps of the Caribbean area.

Haiti's National Library, opened in 1939, has now outgrown its original one room. The library authorities are concentrating simultaneously on programs of building up a reference stock and acquiring valuable special collections; the Benjamin Vincent Library and the Ad-hémar Auguste Library, together comprising about 3,000 volumes of local interest, have been added recently.

The public library attached to the Schoelcher Musée of Martinique in the French West Indies houses an excellent reference library which functions in the dual capacity of a national and reference library for the island's student population and research workers. In addition, it is now establishing a service to rural areas. Guadeloupe's Bibliothèque Populaire Communale, opened in 1957, is still a very modest collection.

A survey of developments in public library services in the British West Indies since 1940 covers practically the entire history of the public library movement in these islands; certainly it includes all the sig-

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nificant developments. At the turn of the century Carnegie libraries had been established in certain islands, but in every case their history was the same; they eked out a meager existence on inadequate votes, supplemented by dwindling subscriptions, and contributed nothing to intellectual and cultural development. With few exceptions a free public library service was unknown. The education authorities seemed unable to appreciate that a good library service would complement their efforts at popular education. Today expenditures on library services in the Eastern Caribbean are still less than two per cent of the money voted for education.¹² Publication of the Savage report in 1934 brought the shortcomings sharply into focus.

The first definite advance was made when the Trinidad government in 1941 accepted the generous offer of \$70,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York for the establishment of a free library service, first to cover Trinidad and Tobago and then, with an additional sum, to expand and cover the entire Eastern Caribbean. Slowly and arduously a service, complete with bookmobiles, was established in Trinidad and a regional branch was opened in Tobago. The second part of the scheme—that of inaugurating library services in the other islands—was then launched. Gradually, out of administrative shambles and disorganization, a new well-founded service arose. Users of the new libraries were amazed at the tremendous potentialities which lay behind this new accessibility of reading matter. The Director of Trinidad's Central Library in his Progress Report for 1953-58 stated "in the rural areas of the West Indies 'do it yourself' is not a slogan for the pleasant occupation of leisure hours; it is a prerequisite of any betterment of life and often of very existence."¹³ No more fitting comment on the place of books in this region could be made.

As in Latin America, coordination of library services was considered essential. A regional library was set up in Trinidad to maintain contact between library services in the area, provide a union catalog of their holdings, promote interlending and in general act as a bibliographical center for the region. Although it has more than proved its worth during the years of its existence, the regional library has had to fight for survival. It has now been combined with the central library in Trinidad and continues to give vital service to the libraries of the Eastern Caribbean.¹⁴

Jamaica has carried out a parallel program of development. Formerly, the library of the Institute of Jamaica took the place of a national library. It has now been able to relinquish this function and to con-

centrate on national archives.

The Jamaica Library Service, planned in accordance with recommendations of the 1945 Bateson report, is operated by a board the membership of which includes representatives from the Department of Education, the British Council, and the University College of the West Indies. Its progress since 1949 has been remarkable. By 1955 the service was manned entirely by a locally recruited staff. All parishes have established a library service and nine of them have their own buildings, all erected since 1949. In 1958 the joint premises of the headquarters building and the St. Andrew's Parish Library were opened in Kingston¹⁵ and the first bookmobile, painted a gay red and white, began to operate.

Although British Honduras belongs geographically to Central America, its library services, initiated in 1935 with Carnegie Corporation funds, have developed in tune with the British Caribbean. Expansion at first was slow; it was not until 1954 that coverage was achieved with a central library and twenty-four service points scattered throughout the country. It is estimated that about 60 per cent of the 90,000 inhabitants now have access to public library books. In 1957 a four-year development plan was instituted and it is intended to review the situation in 1960 and consider further developments, among them a mobile library service.

University and special libraries were among the first to be established in Latin American countries. In all these countries "libraries came into being as they were needed by specific groups. In most cases the needs were dictated by academic research."¹⁶ These libraries filled the requirements of the student and research worker where no other efficient services existed for this purpose. Today many fine libraries are attached to agricultural experiment stations and faculties of national universities. Some of these are manned by qualified librarians and scholars and give a high standard of service. Two of Puerto Rico's strongest reference libraries, for example, are attached to the University at Río Piedras and the College of Agriculture at Mayaguez.

In university librarianship the pattern in the past has been a network of autonomous libraries of vastly varying stocks. Some have concentrated on building up as comprehensive a stock of reference books as funds would permit, others have been able to acquire valuable special collections. Nor has the pattern of administration in these libraries been uniform.

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In Cuba the University of Havana has a main library and a number of faculty libraries. When another state university was established at Santiago de Cuba in Oriente in 1949, its library services were organized independently and there is no evidence of any attempt at conformity or coordination in the bibliographical activities of the two bodies.

In Argentina a trend towards centralization may be seen. In 1953 a library institute was established with the linking up of the university library resources of that country as one of its chief aims. Argentina's newest university has a centralized library service modelled on American lines.¹⁷

In Mexico's new university there is a clear indication that the importance of the library in the university's activities continues to increase. The library, built on a modular plan, is the largest building on the campus. Special attention has been paid to lighting arrangements and suppression of sound and, as regards fenestration, arrangements have been made to keep sunlight away from books since its effect has been found to be detrimental.

There are several small special libraries attached to government departments in the British Caribbean. Although they do valuable work, the over-all effectiveness could be vastly improved if some policy with regard to their organization and administration could be determined. The only two libraries of university standard are the library attached to the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad which has one of the best specialized collections in the world, and the library of the University College of the West Indies in Jamaica. The latter was opened in 1952 and after enduring the ravages of a hurricane and a fire has rebuilt its stock in record time. In addition to the librarian there are six other professional members of staff, all graduates, and a high standard of service has been achieved. The bindery established at the University College is an experiment in co-operation: it is a joint undertaking with the Jamaica Library Service which pays half the cost of upkeep.

The Caribbean Commission's library at their Central Secretariat in Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, has the makings of a national library for the newly formed Federation of The West Indies. It has an excellent collection of books, including a valuable West Indian history section.

In Latin America school libraries exist at all levels of education—primary, secondary, and college. In some countries their establishment has been made mandatory by law, but it has been found that this

does not necessarily produce a library of satisfactory standard. High school students in some countries are accustomed to using their national libraries for reference purposes, with indifferent results as their needs are best filled by provision of libraries intended for their particular requirements.

Two distinct trends are discernible. One is that the school library should be part of a national plan as exemplified in Cuba, Chile, and Puerto Rico. In Cuba, education authorities carried out a survey of library provision for the high school student and published a list of books which should form a basic collection in secondary schools. In Chile, also as a result of a survey, it was recommended that there should be in the Ministry of Education a special section devoted to school libraries and that a committee should be formed to select literature suitable for students. In Puerto Rico, the school library service, started in 1956, was organized on a nationwide basis. There had been an increase in funds available for library services so that it was possible to execute the program as planned and achieve almost complete coverage of the island's schools.

The other distinct trend has been in the selection, training, and status of the school librarian. It is generally agreed that library consciousness has to be awakened and carefully nurtured in the average school child in Latin America, even in high schools and colleges. C. V. Penna in his paper on Latin American libraries stated that "the use of the textbook and of class notes is the custom in Latin American countries and [school] libraries are not generally considered necessary."¹⁸ Because of this, library associations in some of the South American countries have recommended that the school librarian should be a teacher with library training in order that school libraries can relate their activities to the school syllabus and students can form the habit of using the school library. In Chile, teachers are encouraged to take up school librarianship as it is believed that teacher training is beneficial in the school library. A recommendation endorsed by many Latin American librarians is that a course in school librarianship should be included in teachers' training colleges.

An interesting system of staffing is in operation in Mexico City College. There each member of the library staff also participates in the teaching or research program of the college. This, it is felt, makes for better day-to-day relations between students and library staff.¹⁹

The school library movement is still in its infancy in the English-speaking territories of the Caribbean. Developments in this area have

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been uniform in conception and practice. Jamaica was able to start a mobile library service for schools in 1957. It is operated by the Jamaica Library Service on behalf of the Ministry of Education. In the Eastern Caribbean an attempt has been made to include schools in the general public library service. It is envisaged that when money and staff are available a separate scheme will be organized. In British Honduras several uncoordinated school libraries were replaced by a service recently started and operated by the Department of Education. In the American Virgin Islands a school library service, also operated by the Department of Education, is now functioning.

Library associations in the Latin American countries have greatly increased in strength and influence, especially during the past ten years. There is every indication that in the future they will direct the forward movement in both popular and special libraries, as well as press for satisfactory legislation governing libraries and insure that professional librarians receive remuneration commensurate with that received by their colleagues in other parts of the world. Their other vital function will be the production of professional literature for libraries in the Spanish-speaking countries of the world.

Recently they have been responsible for organizing "library days"—that is, conferences where professional librarians meet and discuss common problems, pass resolutions and carry out measures for their mutual benefit. Since the São Paulo Conference, "library days" have been organized in Panama, Cuba, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Colombia, and Mexico.

In Cuba, the Asociación Bibliotecaria Cubana, established in 1939, was completely reorganized and launched afresh in 1949 with a new constitution and new vigor, since which date conferences have been held every year. Among the innovations that this new association has influenced were establishment of Cuba's two library schools and its new national library. In 1958 the association organized its first annual reading week as a publicity campaign aimed at increasing the interest of both adults and juveniles in books. Reading lists and bibliographies were compiled and distributed to libraries, book-shops, schools, and other educational institutions. The *Boletín de la Asociación Cubana de Bibliotecarios* has supplied Cuban librarians with a high standard of professional literature over the past ten years.

As a result of a library congress in Buenos Aires in 1954, seventeen associations in Argentina banded together and established a Federation of Librarians. Argentinian library associations were partly re-

sponsible for the two full-scale schools of librarianship that exist in the country; they issue a well-edited monthly information bulletin which has a wide circulation.

The Asociación Colombiana de Bibliotecarios is making improvement of the status of professional librarians one of its chief aims. In the first number of its bulletin, which appeared in 1957, its recommendations on this subject are set out.

The Asociación Peruana de Bibliotecarios encourages contributors to its professional journal to discuss problems of administration and extension work that exist at all levels of the service. In August of 1958 the association organized the first Peruvian seminar on librarianship in collaboration with the National Library. A recent issue of its journal details a plan for a national service for schools drawn up by the Unesco Regional Centre for the Western Hemisphere in Havana.

In Honduras the organization of a popular library service to both urban and rural areas was on the agenda of the first Honduran "library days" organized under the auspices of the Asociación de Bibliotecarios at the capital city Tegucigalpa.

Specialized branches of library associations are springing up all over Latin America; in various places children's librarians, university librarians, school librarians, and librarians at work in medical and agricultural libraries have formed their own associations. Recently the Asociación Mexicana de Bibliotecarios established its first specialized branch, the Asociación de Bibliotecarios Universitarios y de Institutos de Enseñanza. This body has already held one successful conference.

In the English-speaking Caribbean only one library association exists, the Jamaican Library Association inaugurated in 1949. So far no attempt has been made to form an association of all librarians at work in these territories.

In developments in Latin America since 1950 there is evidence of an emphasis on the need for documentation centers. The Centro de Documentación Científica y Técnica de México is the largest institution of its kind in this part of the world. It was established with the intention that it should serve the whole of Latin America. Like the pilot project at Medellín, it was planned and organized in collaboration with Unesco who operated it in conjunction with the Mexican government for three years before handing it over, in 1954, to specially trained Mexican scientists.¹⁹ Since then it has been carrying out the important function of collecting scientific and technical information from world periodical literature with a special coverage of over

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seven hundred scientific journals published in Latin America. This information has been made available not only to the research workers and the manufacturing firms in Latin America, but to the rest of the world as well. In its monthly bulletin, similar in style to the *World List of Scientific Periodicals*, there are abstracts from over 2,000 journals and an English summary of each abstract to facilitate usefulness in the English-speaking world. One of the additional services of the documentation center is a translation service.

Of the other institutions of this kind in Latin America two are in Argentina, the Instituto Bibliotecológico attached to the University of Buenos Aires and the Instituto Nacional de Documentación which was organized by Unesco, and one in Brazil, the Instituto Brasileiro de Bibliografia e Documentação. Uruguay's documentation center, the Centro de Cooperación Científica para la América Latina in Montevideo, is also a Unesco project. The Documentation Section of the Instituto Centro Americano de Investigación y Tecnología Industrial at Guatemala City has functioned as a bibliographical center since 1956. The Institute is sponsored by the United Nations with the aim of carrying on technological research for the governments of Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua.

In the English-speaking Caribbean there are no institutions engaged solely in the work of documentation, but the University College of the West Indies and the library of the Caribbean Commission have carried out valuable work in this field in recent years.

The other new development, the importance of which has been stressed and borne out by recent activity, is the compilation of national bibliographies for Latin America and the Caribbean.

The International Advisory Committee on Bibliography has working groups in almost every country of Latin America. One such group, the Colombian Bibliographical Group, formed as a result of the Unesco Conference on Bibliographical Services in 1950, has enlisted the aid of all specialist and university libraries in compiling a current Colombian bibliography.

Since 1950 three seminars have taken place which have accelerated the pace of bibliographical work in Latin American countries—the Pilot Bibliographical Seminar at Havana in 1955, the "library days" conference held in Montevideo in 1957, and the Bibliographical Seminar of Central America and the Caribbean in 1958.

At the Bibliographical Seminar in Cuba, the most important decision taken was that an annual bibliography covering the complete

output of literature of all participating countries should be inaugurated. It was agreed that retrospective bibliographies documenting the whole literature of each country should also be compiled.

In Montevideo in 1957, at the "library days" conference, the bibliographical working party resolved to take immediate action towards preparing bibliographies covering the literature of the River Plate countries.

The Bibliographical Seminar of 1958 organized by the Panamanian Bibliographical Group with the cooperation of the Unesco Regional Office for the Western Hemisphere had representatives from Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Puerto Rico. It was recommended that publication of the *Bibliografía de Centroamérica y del Caribe* should be continued with the addition of Mexico to the countries included, and that two current bibliographies, one covering Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay, and one covering Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela, should be compiled.

The following are among the national bibliographies of Latin America and the Caribbean:

Bibliografía de Centroamérica y del Caribe, vol. 1. (Includes Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, and Puerto Rico),

Anuario Bibliográfico Cubano,
Anuario Bibliográfico Argentino,
Indice Bibliográfico Guatemalteco,
Anuario Bibliográfico Dominicano,
Anuario Bibliográfico Venezolano,
Bibliografía Salvadoreña, and
Current Caribbean Bibliography.

It is said that one touch of hatred makes the whole world kin. Common problems produce the same effect and there is every indication that Latin American library services, inextricably interwoven because of similarities in existing conditions and plans for the future, will continue to grow together.

Between the mountains and the ocean, in the skyscraper cities, and in many small villages, over most of South America, there are now libraries. The movement has gained so much momentum in recent

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years that it is impossible to visualize any force that can check its forward surge.

Similarly, on the asphalt roads of the Caribbean islands, the book-mobiles now carry their modern treasure-trove of carefully chosen books, never far from sight of the sea, always in touch with sources of knowledge both at home and beyond that small community in which an island is a world!

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Education and Training of Librarians in the Newly Developing British Commonwealth Countries

BERNARD I. PALMER

A COUNTRY WHICH EARNS its living from the production of primary goods has little need for libraries in the early stages of its entry to world markets. Literacy is for the few, methods are by rule of thumb, and the acquired art of reading for leisure or for self-development is the prerogative of a handful of the people whose cultural focal point is outside the country. Let there be set up, however, a marketing board to manage the exports, an agricultural research organization to improve the crops, or a university, and at once the services of a librarian are needed. He may be appointed from outside the country, or a likely local man may be appointed. Whatever happens, some training of staff begins, and one more country is on the way to building up its force of trained librarians ready for the day when rising literacy leads to the establishment of a public library service.

In the early stages the "new" country looks abroad for the establishment of its standards in librarianship, as in other studies; but with the passage of years its nucleus of overseas trained librarians becomes large enough to establish indigenous standards, and a school of librarianship should then grow up. The peculiar association of nations, made and in the making, which is known as the British Commonwealth of Nations, exhibits within itself examples of professional training at all stages of development. Australia, New Zealand, India, and South Africa have each established their own system, suited to their own needs. Those who would like a classical picture of development of library training in a new country, from its beginnings to its fruition in a locally devised system to meet local conditions, cannot do better

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than read R. F. Kennedy's history of education for librarianship in South Africa.¹

The first qualified librarians in South Africa came from Britain, and as the desire for qualifications spread in South Africa, these librarians encouraged their staffs to take the examinations of the Library Association of Great Britain and to gain election to its Register. By 1934, however, there were sufficient South Africans coming forward to justify the South African Library Association formulating its own syllabus and holding its own examinations, very similar to those of the Library Association but orientated to local conditions, and gradually the local product has replaced the British one. The same pattern of development is observable, but set about a dozen years later in time in Australia. Now many of the newer countries in the Commonwealth are beginning to tread the same path. Their sons and daughters are appearing for the examinations of the Library Association both in their own countries, and in Britain itself. They are the forerunners—those who anticipate the provision of study facilities locally, but who will themselves later do much to provide them.

Before going further it may be useful to look at the qualification system of the Library Association, to see how it can function to provide a qualification for those serving in libraries often quite remote from Britain. To begin with, it must be understood that this system is the recognized method of professional qualification in Britain, not only in librarianship, but in forty other professions as well, from law to public health.² Its roots are in the Middle Ages, and it is taken very seriously by the professions and society at large. The esteem in which a professional Register is held can be measured by the status and salary of its members, and the chartered librarian in Britain holds his place with qualified practitioners in other professions.

Generally speaking, in Britain the universities do not set out to provide vocational education. Their job is to educate the whole man, not to train him for a career. It is the task of the technical and commercial colleges, with courses keyed to the syllabuses of the professional associations, to do this. Consequently employers do not expect professional qualifications to include a pronouncement on general education: the universities have done this with their degrees for graduates, and their "A" and "O" level certificates for those whose formal general education ends upon leaving school. If an employer wants his solicitor, accountant, or librarian to be a graduate, he must specify this. That is not to say, however, that the nongraduate professional man is unedu-

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cated. It merely indicates that his education has been canalized in professional subjects. The examinations are highly selective (a recent survey³ shows the percentage of passes in the examinations of a dozen professions: the average is 42 per cent) and the final examinations are normally marked at degree standard. The Ministry of Education itself recognizes many of them (including Library Association examinations) as being of degree standard in approving courses and in the schedules of the Burnham Committee's periodical salary awards to teachers. But the examinations are not the whole story, and do not constitute a qualification by themselves. To success in these must be added a period of service under supervised practical working conditions, sometimes legally defined in "articles," but sometimes more informal. In the case of the student-librarian, he is required to show evidence of three years' approved library service (i.e. under the aegis of a chartered librarian) and to have reached age 23 before admission to the Register of chartered librarians as an Associate of the Library Association. For Fellowship the requirements are five years' service and age 25.

The professional association, then, holds the examinations, and the normal teaching agencies, including those provided by local education authorities, take care of the tuition. This system has great flexibility, because if there is no local teaching agency a candidate can still be examined, even if he prepares himself by private study, guided or unguided. And the guidance may come from part-time, correspondence, or even individual tuition. Some may look askance at this; but it ill becomes a librarian who boasts that the public library is "a university which all may enter and none need ever leave" to denigrate the achievement of the man who prepares himself from the librarian's stock-in-trade books. How else can anyone educate himself except by reading and observation?

In the postwar years there has been great expansion in the British Colonies. The Colonial Development and Welfare Acts of 1940, 1945, and 1949 have made huge sums of money available which have benefited, among other recipients, educational institutions, and hence the libraries contained in them. Money has been available for British librarians to be appointed to universities and technical colleges overseas and for some locally recruited library staff to be sent to the United Kingdom for training. Research institutions have been set up, often with British librarians in charge of their libraries. The British Council has provided libraries, and often British librarians, in many over-

seas countries, including several colonies.

Now, "a library is a growing organism,"⁴ and the appointment of a librarian, indigenous or from overseas, is only the first step towards the future staffing of the library. The second step is the recruitment of local assistance. Frequently this takes the form of a clerk or clerks, who must be instructed in the elements of library work. The better ones respond to this treatment, and since all librarians are educators the intern-training system for the specific library's use widens in scope and soon the librarian is imparting his full knowledge to his staff, and is guiding them in their reading. Other local libraries, which sooner or later are formed in schools and clubs, supply a few more eager students, and the librarian finds himself with a sort of spare-time "atelier" on his hands. This is not imaginary: it is true, as everyone who has done library work in the developing countries will affirm. The thirst for knowledge is overwhelming, and the desire for instruction all-consuming.

Foremost among these "atelier-librarians" have been men and women sent out by the British Council to set up and conduct the local libraries of that organization. They could have done just that, and still have done a good job of work. But everywhere they have gone beyond what was required of them, and have devoted their spare time and energy to the training of local people. This is insufficiently realized by the profession and (one suspects) by the British Council itself. The supply of trained staff comes almost before establishment of the library itself: or it should do in a well-ordered society. The British Council librarians have done a magnificent job of training, with little or no resources at their command, and have frequently been responsible for the first appearance of local people on the Library Association's Register of chartered librarians. In furthering knowledge of the British way of life, no group in the community is more worth the expenditure of time and money than librarians, to whom adults turn freely for help and advice all their lives.

From 1941-47 Helen Stewart was busy organizing a central library service in Trinidad, and giving the basic training to local recruits that was necessary to start and keep the wheels turning. In 1947, upon her retirement, the British Council seconded S. W. Hockey to Trinidad as director of the Eastern Caribbean Regional Library, and J. Smeaton as deputy director. The training scheme was extended, and in 1948 Hockey wrote to the Library Association in Lon-

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don to seek their cooperation in enabling his librarians-in-training to gain a recognized qualification in librarianship. The British are not doctrinaire: they prefer to adapt existing institutions to their own needs rather than invent new ones. The required cooperation was immediately forthcoming, and the beginnings of a system of training and qualification were made. The scheme aimed at preparing students for one part at a time of the Library Association examinations,* beginning with the First Professional Examination, and it extended the study over a number of years in successive sessions of six months' duration. The sessions consisted of a five months' correspondence course (remember, the constituent islands of the scheme are widely scattered) followed by one month of concentrated full-time practical work and demonstrations at the Regional Headquarters, for which the students were gathered in. This scheme, at the request of the director of the Jamaica Library Service, was later extended to include the staff of that library, which had been set up in 1949. Some assistants in British Guiana also benefited. All the teaching, be it noted, was part-time work by busy librarians who already had a full program of library development to execute. When Colonial Development and Welfare funds ceased in 1956—Smeaton having already been transferred by the British Council to their Delhi library—the full burden of tuition fell on the West Indian librarians who had so far been trained.

In 1955 the Eastern Caribbean Regional Library joined forces with the Central Library of Trinidad and Tobago, sharing the same director, Hockey, and the same roof; but clearly differentiating their functions.^{5, 6} One of the functions assumed by the E.C.R.L. was the training of staff, and the appointment of a tutor-in-charge was created to organize a full-scale training scheme for the West Indies, based on the syllabus and examinations of the Library Association. At the time of writing it is known that R. C. Bengé, formerly a lecturer at the North Western Polytechnic (London) School of Librarianship is to take up the post of tutor-in-charge in July 1959. A major step has been taken towards the establishment of a library school in the Federation of the West Indies.

* The Syllabus of the Library Association is in three stages: (1) the First Professional Examination for nongraduates; (2) The Registration Examination (the general qualifying examination) for graduates and for nongraduates who have passed the First Professional Examination; (3) The Final Examination for those who have successfully passed (2), and intend to go on to senior posts in library work.

Moving now across the Atlantic to West Africa, where new nations are flexing their muscles and trying their strength, developments in Ghana and Nigeria will be considered. In 1945, the British Council in association with the governments of Nigeria, Gold Coast (now Ghana), and Sierra Leone, set up a library school at Achimota College, Accra, which was attended by fourteen students.⁷ It submitted ten successful candidates for the Entrance Examination of the Library Association in that year, of whom two subsequently came to Britain to attend library school and to qualify as chartered librarians. From 1945 onwards, the incidence of African names in the Library Association examination pass lists became more and more frequent. The returning West African chartered librarians got together with their European colleagues in West Africa, and in 1953 set up the West African Library Association. It was one of the aims of W.A.L.A. to coordinate the local tutoring activities which, in accordance with the general movement in new countries noted above, had sprung up to meet local demand. Such tuition was mostly on an intern-training basis, but with the horizon widened beyond Africa. It was keyed to the syllabus of the Library Association, and produced reasonable results, in spite of many difficulties. In 1956 the Nigerian Division of W.A.L.A. organized evening classes in librarianship at Lagos to which the tutors (African and European librarians) gave their services free. These classes still continue.

Perhaps the greatest difficulty is that of language. In these new countries which have been made into viable units only by the grouping of peoples of various tribes and languages, English is the only lingua franca, and it is difficult to see how it could be otherwise. Tuition has to be in English, and most of the books are in English; yet English is an "acquired," not a "natural" tongue for most. Confusion arises in the minds of its users between words which are alike in appearance, such as "temporal" and "temporary," "respective" and "respectful," while the difficulties arising from homonyms are legion. Somehow these difficulties must be overcome in teaching students the job of librarianship, and in coaching them for examinations, so that the teacher must always include English as one of his subjects.

Then the difficulties arising from customs must be considered. The Ghana Library Board, with the example of Evelyn Evans as a brilliant librarian, has been able to recruit many girls to library work; but not so Nigeria. The Muslim Northern Nigeria is unlikely for many years to provide women recruits to librarianship. In countries where

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only a minority receive any education at all, attendance at a secondary school gives prestige—and prestige precludes the carrying of heavy books by library assistants, or even the use of a typewriter. Then there are tensions arising from tribalism which have to be overcome; these are serious enough to cause some assistants to believe (rightly or wrongly) that they have reason to walk in terror of the machinations of others of different tribes. The librarian overcomes these difficulties somehow. Perhaps he does it by personal example, by being the “servant” of his staff. Perhaps he does it by training schemes which place staff side-by-side, to teach them by practical experience the interdependence of mankind. However it happens, tolerance and understanding do grow, which says much for librarianship, and doubly underlines the need for proper training schemes. These difficulties have been dwelt upon here, although they are common to many other of the new countries, because it was convenient, not because they are exclusive to West Africa.

In 1957 Harold Lancour, of the University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, made a survey of libraries in West Africa on behalf of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and his report⁸ comes out strongly in favor of the establishment of a school of librarianship in West Africa. In March of this year the W.A.L.A. Council set up a Standing Committee on Library Training to consider the implications of the report and to assist in carrying out its recommendations against the known and anticipated needs of West Africa. The writer has since been consulted in certain details, and it seems reasonable to anticipate that 1960 will see the establishment of a school of librarianship at University College, Ibadan, Nigeria, offering a two-year course to graduates and to nongraduates who have passed the First Professional Examination of the Library Association; such course to lead to the Registration Examination of the Library Association, with perhaps an opportunity for graduates to do advanced work with special relevance to African libraries. Thus one more of the new countries is to get its library training on to a sound footing. This time the money will come not from a local, but from an American, source.

Turning elsewhere, the picture is less encouraging. In most of the other new countries training for librarianship is hardly out of the “primitive” stage. East Africa, for instance, can only offer evening classes, attended by a dozen library assistants, at the Royal Technical College of East Africa, Nairobi. This is a piece of personal pioneer-

ing by D. A. R. Kemp, the librarian of the College, and his senior staff. In a recent letter to the present writer he said: "We are on the verge here of library development, I feel, both in the Colony as a whole and in the College in particular . . . I am running evening classes for the First Professional Examination with the help of my three senior staff and we have a regular attendance of nine from libraries in the district apart from our own. . . ." Here, again, is the atelier. In Makerere College library, in Uganda, they try to train their own assistants, but this is spasmodic. Four have so far passed the First Professional Examination of the Library Association, one has been to an English library school, has registered as a chartered librarian and is at present working as an assistant in a library in England; another (graduate) assistant is taking a course in Denver, Colorado. The East African Literature Bureau has one African chartered librarian on its staff, who began his studies on the atelier basis and completed them at an English library school. The neighboring island of Mauritius has sent a few students to England, and a few more are studying at home by correspondence.

Before looking at other territories it may be useful to examine the relative achievements of candidates drawn from Britain and overseas in the examinations of the Library Association.

Examination Entries for Summer 1958

	<i>Attempted</i>	<i>Passed</i>	<i>% Pass</i>
1. All home and overseas entries for First Professional and Registration Examinations	3190	1429 (64 with Merit)	45
2. All entries from overseas candidates	176	73 (2 with Merit)	41.5
3. Entries from African candidates only	73	30 (2 with Merit)	41.1

Most overseas candidates will be studying and writing papers in a language not their own, but it will be seen that they do not fare noticeably worse than their English counterparts. Considered superficially, it might be thought that it would be preferable to teach young librarians through the medium of their mother-tongue; but

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it has to be realized that, apart from the fact that all the textbooks are in English, the very materials with which they work are in English, too. Even those countries which have an advanced culture (e.g. the Asian countries) seldom have an adequate bibliographical apparatus, and usually lack a technological and scientific literature, which throws them back on to English as a medium of communication and library organization.

Another new nation in Africa, formerly linked with Britain but now outside the Commonwealth, is the Sudan. Today, the sole European librarian in the Sudan is Michael Jolliffe, librarian of Khartoum University. He has given a great deal of thought to the problem of "Sudanization" of the university library, and to providing for the future growth of other libraries in the Sudan. The report of his Library Committee⁹ for 1957-58 sets out an interesting scheme for tuition and examination, related in standards to the Library Association syllabus, but smaller in content, and limited in application. It will be a purely local examination, designed to provide a channel of advancement in the university library itself. Jolliffe hopes to draw external examiners from the Library Association. This is a particularly interesting venture, because it shows the re-shaping of the British syllabus to meet local conditions in a country where there is a considerable corpus of indigenous literature, and where there is no problem of a lingua franca, since all educated people are Arabic speaking. The interesting feature of it is the smallness of the amount of change in the Library Association syllabus that has been found necessary. Meantime, two members of the library staff, one graduate and one nongraduate, are at schools of librarianship in England.

In moving from Africa to Asia, problems of a different order are encountered. Unlike Africa, where to be reasonably literate is sufficient to be certain of a clerical post, and where only the "elect" have had university education, in many Asian countries there is a great deal of graduate unemployment. (One has heard of the instance of fifty-six applications being received from graduates for the post of village postman.) In India, where the second world war proved to be a forcing period for independence in many fields besides the political one, a number of universities have set up postgraduate schools of librarianship, of which the best-known are Delhi, Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay.¹⁰ Much of this activity was due to the inspiring efforts of S. R. Ranganathan whose work in the library training field is well known. But the pressure to acquire further qualifications to insure

getting a job in the face of unemployment of intellectuals, which is at present rather serious, still sends many Indians overseas to study in Britain and the United States.

Pakistan, which had to erect the whole apparatus of state in 1948, held a Diploma course in librarianship at Lahore in that year, under the directorship of a British-trained librarian, Fazil Elahi, but after one session it did not re-form. The Pakistan Library Association tried a correspondence course in 1950, but this did not last beyond a single term. In 1952 the Karachi Library Association initiated a School of Librarianship (which still continues) giving a certificate after four months' study, and open to those who have passed the Intermediate examination of any recognized university. In 1956 the United States Educational Foundation set up a library training scheme at Dacca University, East Pakistan, and in the same year a course was started at Karachi University. A course was planned to begin at Peshawar University in 1958. The total output of librarians trained or partially trained in 1957 was estimated to be about eighty persons.¹¹

There are about half a dozen librarians in Ceylon who have qualified in either Britain or the United States. In addition to these are a handful who are pursuing private studies and offering themselves for examination in Ceylon by the Library Association. The secondment of J. Redmond, a Canadian librarian, to the library of the Ceylon Institute of Scientific and Industrial Research under the Colombo Plan, introduced the idea of an exclusively graduate profession on the American model, and two graduates have been sent to the United States for training. K. D. Somadasa of Ceylon University Library, speaking to the present writer during the final stages of the writing of this article (June 1959), stated that his University was planning to introduce a training scheme for librarianship in 1960. Can one venture the hope that this might be regarded as an enterprise in which the Colombo Plan might be legitimately interested, and so qualify for some financial help from that direction?

For the rest of the Commonwealth countries in Asia, however, the story is one of individual effort on the "atelier plan" again. Dorothea Scott, university librarian of Hong Kong, for example, does local intern training, and has managed to put forward a few local candidates for Library Association examinations, and to send a few others to Britain or America for training, and an occasional Burmese student offers himself to the Association of Assistant Librarians for tuition by correspondence.

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In looking further South East, to Malaya, there is no library school, nor any formal scheme afoot for library training. The Library Association of Malaya and Singapore (formerly the Malayan Library Group) has held several week-end orientation courses for teacher librarians, and the Malayan Public Library Association has organized brief introductory courses of an elementary nature for the "librarians" of its Chinese libraries. Here again the problem of a diversity of languages and cultures arises, with English as the common meeting ground. Malaya and Singapore have sent students to British and American library schools, and two to Australia, but their numbers are a drop in the ocean of the countries' needs. The Singapore government has sent three assistants to study in the United Kingdom but there are no local classes. Further East still, Sarawak and Borneo have each sent a student to Britain to train. But there is a need for a library school in this South East fringe of Asia, and if the growth of libraries along proper lines is not to be stultified it must be provided soon.

Despite the rather gloomy note sounded about Asia, outside India, the picture would be misleading and incomplete without mention of the sterling work that has been and is still being done by the correspondence institute of the Association of Assistant Librarians of the United Kingdom. This organization, set up many years ago when the training system in Britain was not unlike that in the Colonies today, has extended its activities willy-nilly to overseas students everywhere. It is not easy to help these eager students, because the courses are based on readings drawn widely from British, American, and Commonwealth books and periodicals, and all too often they are not available in the students' homelands. Here again the British Council, as ever, has come nobly to the rescue in many places. The courses are necessarily stiff, because they prepare students for an examination syllabus designed for a full-time course. This is the ubiquitous syllabus of the Library Association.¹² There would be many fewer librarians in the new countries today if it had not been for patient men and women in Britain writing endless notes and explanations in their leisure time to students all over the world, and for the devoted administrative work of J. S. Davey, the honorable education officer of the Association of Assistant Librarians.

It would not be fitting to end this survey (which is necessarily an outline and must lack detail) without a reference to the library schools in Britain which have done so much to produce the librarians for the new countries of the Commonwealth. There are ten schools

of librarianship in Britain: one at University College, London, offering a postgraduate diploma following a course lasting one academic year (October to June), and nine at technical and commercial colleges in London and elsewhere, offering one-year courses (mid-September to mid-July) to graduates and nongraduates alike, in preparation for the Registration Examination of the Library Association, and further courses of one-year to successful students who wish to go on to the Final Examination (which is an advanced qualification). All of these schools, from their inception in 1946-47 (and the London University School since it was founded in 1919), have accepted overseas students from many countries, not only from the Commonwealth. These students get the same instruction but with more personal attention, that their British colleagues receive, and during their school vacations they are sent on attachments to various types of libraries in Britain. Those who are given an adequate period of study go back with a good theoretical and practical background of librarianship from which to work out the library problems of their own countries. That this study is not wasted is very evident from later reports and correspondence from their homelands. Again, one must refer to Lancour's report on West Africa and the excellent work done by the African librarians noted therein.

The writer of this article sees from his office in London the gradual opening up of the library field all over the world. The flexibility of the examining system of the Library Association, in that it is not tied to any particular course in any particular institution, but sets certain standards of knowledge which, allied to practical experience, permit assessment of a person as a competent practicing librarian, enables would-be librarians to qualify wherever they may be. At any one session candidates are examined at upwards of forty overseas centers, inside and outside the British Commonwealth. One sees the first stirrings of interest in a district when a letter of inquiry arrives in the office from someone somewhere who is struggling with the problems of a library service which is growing under his hands. He writes for help in gaining instruction in the work of a librarian, and asks how he can qualify. So common is this kind of an inquiry that a special "help letter" has been devised to cope with it. Such an inquiry frequently leads to an application to the Association of Assistant Librarians for a correspondence course, and ultimately to the provision of an examination center. Sometimes it leads to the provision of a scholarship to Britain, by the inquirer's government, the

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British Council, or some other agency; and one of the pleasures of the life of an officer of the Library Association is the appearance at Chaucer House of a member who hitherto has been only a name on an airletter.

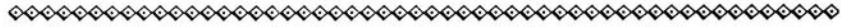
The need for a considerable expansion in library training is urgent, and the desire for it is plainly shown in the use made of the Library Association's facilities. The present arrangements to meet it locally are utterly inadequate, and if we are to do our duty towards our colleagues overseas something must be done quite quickly. For this, considerable funds are needed to set up schools in the countries concerned. The American Library Association is cooperating with the Carnegie Corporation of New York who are supplying funds for the development of overseas libraries, as the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust formerly did to British and American ones, but these bodies cannot be expected to supply all the drive and manpower. There is a good case for the American Library Association and the (British) Library Association to get together on this problem, and the obvious first step is for the Library Association to offer its advisory services for that part of the Carnegie Corporation's plans which concerns the British Commonwealth of Nations, and so relieve the American Library Association of a large part of its burden. If the British Council, which itself provides bursaries and scholarships for overseas students, could extend the scope of its activities to appointing teachers of librarianship to give tuition locally, and to providing comprehensive textbook libraries in librarianship, it would enormously increase the output of trained librarians in the new Commonwealth countries. There is no lack of goodwill in the Library Association; but goodwill by itself is not sufficient. Money provides the sinews of peace, just as much as of war.

Note. The writer wishes to point out that the opinions expressed in this article are his own and do not necessarily represent those of the Council of the Library Association.

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Education and Training of Librarians in Asia, the Near East, and Latin America

ALICE LOHRER AND
WILLIAM VERNON JACKSON

AFTER WORLD WAR II the international exchange of educational and professional persons increased greatly. Under the Fulbright program, resulting from the disposal of surplus war matériel and agricultural commodities, Americans have gone to many foreign countries as lecturers, scholars, and students, while foreign students have come to the United States. Other Americans have undertaken assignments abroad under the terms of the Smith-Mundt Act, which provides grants for lectureships requested by foreign universities. U.S. government agencies, such as the Department of Health, Education and Welfare and the International Cooperation Administration, have also contributed to these exchanges. The philanthropic foundations—Ford, Carnegie, Rockefeller, and others—have enlarged their activities in the international field, and Unesco has played a part through its programs of technical assistance. Many of the activities carried on under these programs have involved the newly developing countries in Asia, the Near East, and Latin America.

The sending of professional librarians from America to all parts of the world to teach, to survey, to lecture, and to observe; the bringing of librarians to the United States to visit libraries and library schools; and the selecting of students to come to this country for professional training in librarianship—all have been a part of this comprehensive program of educational exchange. The impact of all this activity during the postwar years is expanding like the ripples in a pool enlarge and enlarge after a pebble has been dropped into the water.

The library program of the United States armed forces with its base libraries and libraries in dependent schools began during the war and

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has continued in accordance with the nation's worldwide defense commitments. Although this program serves American personnel overseas, its influence has been felt in a number of countries. Furthermore, the United States Information Service (U.S.I.S.) has considered libraries one of its important activities. Both directly and indirectly it has often furthered library training through such devices as providing supplementary teaching materials (Japan, Thailand and Indonesia), having the American U.S.I.S. librarian offer lectures or courses (New Zealand), and encouraging the library staff to participate in professional meetings (Argentina). The exact nature and scope of the U.S.I.S. library program has varied from time to time, but it has played a significant role in awakening interest in many parts of the world in books and other library materials and, more importantly, in what is known as the American concept of library service. Related to this program are the library activities of the binational centers, which are found chiefly in Latin America.¹

The previous article covers education and training of librarians in the newly developing countries of the British Commonwealth. There remain many countries in Asia, in the Near East, and in Latin America without British background, in which the pattern of development of education for librarianship has tended to follow primarily American models. The discussion that follows attempts to survey the present status of this movement in these nations. It emphasizes current trends and only incidentally traces the evolutionary process that has brought training to its present state. This survey reflects the situation as it was in mid-1959 and draws chiefly upon observations the authors made during extensive trips to the Far East and to South America during the past summer.

The first part of the article describes the present situation in some of the major countries in each of these areas. It draws heavily upon the examples of Japan, Thailand, Argentina, and Brazil because the authors are most familiar with them. The comments and observations that follow on the ways of meeting the needs for education for librarianship are an outgrowth not only of their experiences in library assignments overseas but also of advising and working with foreign students studying library science in the United States.

In discussing the recent trends in American influence on library education in the Far East it might be well to divide the subject into three parts according to the stages of library development and training as personally observed in 1955-56 and again in 1959. First, there are

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the countries—such as Japan and the Philippines—that have a long history of library development and some training—formal and informal. Second, there are the countries—such as Thailand, Indonesia, and Taiwan—that have had collections of manuscripts and books housed in a few libraries but inadequately organized and poorly staffed until after the war, and with recently established programs of library education. The third group includes the smaller countries and islands—such as the Fiji Islands—where economic and cultural development has been much slower, and where libraries are very meager with limited professionally trained personnel to develop a program, and where no library schools exist.

Each country is unique; yet there are common stages of development and problems that face them all. These include the desire of each country to develop self realization as well as economic and political independence, to achieve recognition in the family of nations, and to participate in modern developments that characterize the world today. To achieve these ends it has been found that education and literacy play an important part, and a need for and an awareness of the role of books and other communications media have followed. The leadership of the United States in developing library programs of service and technical efficiency as well as in setting high professional standards for library training has stimulated many of these newly developing countries to seek American aid and help in establishing more modern programs of library service in their own countries.

In both the Philippines and Japan, however, it has been the direct influence of the United States in the internal affairs of each country that has resulted in library developments patterned after the American system. In the other countries American aid has been sought independently by the governments of each country and has been secured through the Fulbright programs, International Education Assistance, Rockefeller and Ford fellowships, and technical assistance projects.

In commenting briefly upon the effects of American influence as observed in the Philippines—visits to university, school, public, and special libraries and library schools in Manila and the surrounding area—one is overwhelmed at the eagerness for education as seen in the capital city and the great resemblance to American educational institutions and libraries. There seem to be universities and colleges on every major street and the enrollments are phenomenal. The Far Eastern University alone has over 41,000 students. Its main library, seating 500, and the ten departmental libraries are filled to capacity

from 7:30 a.m. to 9:00 p.m. daily with students. Many libraries in other parts of the Far East are occupied by people not using the materials of the library but reading items they have brought with them because the library is comfortable and quiet. However, the libraries in the Philippines are used as are those in the United States. The collections of the university libraries range from 80,000 volumes in the recently recreated Far Eastern University library to 150,000 volumes at Santo Tomas University which has the oldest university library in the islands and the only one not destroyed during the war. When one realizes that almost all government, school, private, institutional, and university libraries were destroyed by the war, it is obvious that the acquisition and organization of new collections and the development of library service programs did not happen overnight. American influence in Philippine libraries goes back to 1900 with the establishment of the first public library by American educational pioneers and to the first training program for librarians initiated in 1914 by Mary Polk, the American librarian of the Scientific Library in Manila, who offered a few courses at the University of the Philippines.²

Today training for librarianship is offered in many of the Philippine universities at the undergraduate level. A program consisting of offerings from fifteen to thirty-six units of credit as a major or minor in library science is given, for example, to 120 students at Far Eastern University. At Santa Tomas there are 130 students enrolled in the two year undergraduate course in library science for juniors and seniors. Similar programs are offered at many of the other colleges and universities. Placement for librarians is no problem, for they go immediately into government, special, public, school, and university libraries. Before the war there was only one library school, at the University of the Philippines; now there are many and they are accredited by the Bureau of Private Schools and the Department of Education.

The University of the Philippines offers a regular four year course in library science and is in the process of strengthening its program and offerings to improve its status as a professional school. The Department of Library Science³ is in the Division of the Humanities in the College of Liberal Arts. The courses offered by the Department of Library Science are designed to meet (1) the need for technically trained librarians in public and institutional libraries; (2) the demand for trained teacher-librarians in public and private schools, colleges,

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and universities; and (3) the need for training students in the use of books and libraries. There is a prescribed four-year curriculum in library science leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Library Science, with the title of Associate in Arts at the end of the second year. The program can be taken as a minor for those who intend to become library assistants in a small library, and as elective courses for students in English who desire to increase their knowledge of books but who do not intend to engage in library work. The junior college courses include ⁴ use of books and libraries, and chemical and general bibliography. Senior college courses include elementary reference work; classification, cataloging, shelf-listing and indexing; history, organization, and administration of libraries; chemical and general bibliography; library practice; selection, evaluation, and acquisition of books; advanced reference work; public library service; school library service; library service to children and young people; special library service; college and university library service; and bibliography. The program includes forty-nine units of credit. Graduate courses in library science are not offered in the Philippines, so students go to the United States for advanced degrees in the field. There are many holders of American library degrees in the libraries of the islands as is evident when one visits the public, school, college, and university libraries, and the special libraries in banks, insurance companies, and hospitals. The librarians are dedicated people who have an insight into the value of their work and eagerly seek ways to improve what they are doing.

The second country in the Far East where a great deal of American influence has infiltrated the library field is Japan. Actually, libraries in Japan probably date from "the beginning of the eighth century" though contemporary librarianship probably dates about 1867.⁵ As a result of American occupation at the termination of the war, a group of American consultants were sent to Japan to make recommendations for educational changes and library development. R. B. Downs of the University of Illinois Library and Graduate School of Library Science was sent to Japan twice as a specialist to help plan for library development at the national level ⁶ and for organizing a library school on a sound professional basis.⁷ His recommendations led to the establishment of the National Diet Library and the founding of the Japan Library School at Keio-Gijuku University in 1951 under the directorship of R. L. Gitler. An American faculty were selected ⁸ to initiate the training program and to develop the curriculum patterned

after American library education but modified to meet the local needs of the Japanese libraries.

Takahisa Sawamoto has written a succinct article on "Education for Librarianship in Japan" for use by the Field Seminar study group sponsored by the American Library Association. In this article he traces the historical development of library training in Japan which began with a short course for in-service librarians offered in 1903 in Tokyo under the sponsorship of the Japan Library Association. Up to 1940 "thirty short courses or institutes had been held in various places, of which seventeen had been sponsored by the Ministry of Education, six by local municipal governmental agencies, and six by the Japan Library Association and its local agencies. These were for the most part general in nature, but in a few instances there were lectures on specific reference books or bibliographical surveys of certain subject fields."⁹

American influence took specific form from 1949 to 1951 with six institutes for library training offered by American professional librarians. Then in April 1951 the Japan Library School of Keio-Gijuku University was established for "full-scale professional training in librarianship at the university level." This does not mean, however, that this was the first university to offer courses in librarianship in Japan nor that it came about through American influence in the beginning. The first course in librarianship goes back to 1917 when Mankichi Wada, professor at Tokyo Imperial University, gave a course under the university's Faculty of Literature. But before 1950 very few universities in Japan had courses in librarianship, whereas today there are over seventy-three colleges and universities in Japan offering "from one to forty-six credit units of library science."¹⁰

Many of these courses stem from the passage of the Japan Library Law of April 30, 1950, and the Japan School Library Law of August 8, 1953. As a result of special in-service courses of eight to fifteen units of credit in library science, over 4,800 in-service librarians and 13,000 teachers completed the courses and qualified as professional librarians or teacher-librarians in accordance with the law.¹¹ This sounds impressive, and so it is, but the quality of instruction varied greatly due to the lack of professionally trained librarians to offer the courses, lack of professional tools to use in teaching the courses, and lack of good operating libraries in which to do practice work. Many people in Japan hold the title of a professionally trained librarian without actually understanding what librarianship entails except for the order-

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ing and cataloging of books. Actual use of libraries in Japan by students and public as it is known in the United States and in Europe is little understood or utilized by the average person. The partial answer to this is the lack of fundamental changes in the educational system of Japan which would require the increased use of libraries by its students and teachers. Librarians in Japan have little understanding of the services that might be made available to either children or adults. Many changes have taken place too rapidly and from outside the educational system for there to be a real understanding of the benefits these changes will bring. An awareness of this is taking place in Japan today and steps are being studied to bring about improvement in services and in the quality of training for the library profession.

One example is the Library Education Department¹² of the Japan Library Association, established in 1959, which includes the faculty of the Japan Library School, teachers of the Ueno Library Training School, and instructors of the library science courses of Tokyo and Nihon Universities. It is hoped that standards can be raised in Japan to place all library education at the university level and eliminate the training of high school graduates for professional positions. The Japan Library School at Keio-Gijuku University is the only accredited library school in Japan and is accredited by the Japan University Accrediting Association. Unfortunately, graduates of the Japan Library School holding a university degree have to compete with high school graduates holding certificates of librarianship issued by the Ministry of Education. This situation is one reason why the status of the professional librarian has changed little since Downs made his report ten years ago. A slight improvement has been seen in recent years, but the status and salary of the professional librarian are still very low.

The Japan Library School has a full time resident Japanese faculty of five,¹³ some hold professional degrees from American library schools, and one or more teach only on a part-time basis. Other schools usually operate with part-time faculty as evidenced by the fact that only fifteen out of 142 library science teachers are employed full-time.¹⁴ Students, including both men and women, are admitted to the Japan Library School as transfers from reputable universities and colleges from all parts of Japan. This is rather unusual since there is little transfer of students from one school to another and little mobility of personnel from one position to another. Rigidity

of placement creates many problems in the advancement of young librarians, though this is equally true in all professional work. The school, thus is nationwide in scope, and has a curriculum which is part of a regular university course of study leading to a professional degree within the framework of the Faculty of Literature on the Mita Campus of Keio-Gijuku University.¹⁵

The curriculum of the school incorporates general education courses as prerequisites to its two year program which are offered during the third and fourth years at the university. Degree candidates must complete, in addition, a total of not less than sixty-four units including thirty units of required courses in library science, at least six units of elective courses in library science, and at least twenty-seven units of elective courses from a pool of courses approved by the Faculty of Literature. Students are also required to complete four units of practice work above the basic sixty-four. Twenty of the required library science units are scheduled for the third year and ten units for the fourth. Required third year courses include libraries, librarians, and society; social (adult) education and the library; classification and cataloging of library materials (Japanese and foreign); informational and bibliographic sources and methods, including reference service; Japanese and Chinese library materials; and book selection and reader's advisory service. Electives for the third year include audio-visual materials in library service; and history of books and libraries.

Required fourth year courses are organization, administration, and management of libraries; advanced classification and cataloging of library materials (Japanese and foreign); advanced informational and bibliographic sources and methods, including reference service; and library work with children and young people: reading materials. Electives include the school library and its management; advanced library work with children and young people: storytelling, literature; audio-visual materials in library service; library extension: service for rural areas and villages—regional library activity; history of books and libraries; education for librarianship: the library school and its students; and practice and observation.¹⁶

Since there is a real need in Japan for improved administration and organization of its libraries, for the development of library services to its patrons, and for reading guidance for children and young adults, there is genuine concern for incorporating plans to strengthen the quality of library education programs to match those offered at

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the Japan Library School. More faculty need to be sent abroad for advanced professional degrees, and positive steps need to be taken to differentiate more clearly those persons who are qualified to hold professional positions and those qualified for clerical positions only.

Turning to the second group of countries in the Far East that have regularly established programs of library education, Thailand has a professional program of librarianship offered by the Faculty of Arts¹⁷ and known as the Department of Library Science of Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok. This department was established in 1955 and eight students received the first diploma of library science in June 1956.¹⁸ The present two year program offered by the Department includes eight required courses of twenty-seven credit units in library science: libraries and society; cataloging and classification of Thai books; reference service; selection of library materials; library administration; history of books and printing; and field work. It includes three courses in other subjects totalling four credit units. These courses are spoken English and library correspondence in English; typing in Thai and in English; and business methods. There are also seven courses of electives totalling sixteen credit units, nine of which are required for graduation. These are children's literature; school libraries; literature of the sciences; literature of the social sciences; literature of the humanities; use of books and libraries; and bibliographical and research methods.¹⁹ A total of forty credits are required for a Diploma in Library Science. These courses are offered at the junior and senior level and are incorporated as part of the regular university curriculum. The faculty of the school, including the director, are all part-time but all have received their professional library degrees from accredited American library schools.

Training of librarians in Thailand, which began in 1951,²⁰ was under the sponsorship of the Fulbright program until 1956. Five American librarians, one each successive year, directed the program in its initial stages and the influence of this program led to the building of the Chulalongkorn University library and the establishment of the Department of Library Science as a part of the Faculty of Arts. For the first four years, 1951-55, the courses offered by the American faculty were basic courses in librarianship for practicing librarians in government, public, school, and special libraries. These libraries had recently been organized for use by the government since all educational institutions and all public libraries are under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Education and the government itself. During

the last year of the Fulbright program the American lecturer offered the four basic courses for practicing librarians and the course on cataloging and classification of English books. Since that time the in-service training program has continued under the sponsorship of the Thai Library Association, and the basic courses are taught in Thai by professionally trained Thai librarians on a part-time basis.

The entire program reflects the American pattern of library education and is a fundamentally sound program. Its major weaknesses are the lack of a full-time faculty to direct the program and the small student enrollment. Few professional tools are in the Thai language but since English is a required subject this handicap is not as great as in other countries.

In addition to the program of library education offered at Chulalongkorn, many Thai students receive professional training in the United States under the Fulbright scholarship program or the contract plan which Indiana University Library School has with the Thai government. The latter students are sent to Indiana University for a year and a half to two years for the completion of a master's degree. This program is fulfilling the great need for professionally trained librarians and as long as it continues it will add greatly to strengthening librarianship in Thailand.

The Republic of Indonesia has also recently established a program of library education. The first library school was opened in Djakarta on October 20, 1952, under the name *Kursus Pendidikan Pegawai Perpustakaan*²¹ which translated means: "Course for the education of library personnel." The program was designed to train assistant librarians for university, faculty, governmental, departmental, state, public, and other libraries.

The need for library education was recognized by the government when academic study and research was developed in Indonesia after it had gained independence. Ministries, universities, and other institutions soon realized the value of well organized and well selected libraries and sent their library personnel for training in library service.²²

The program consists of two years study for students with high school diplomas. It is not yet affiliated with the university as a regular department although plans for such a change are being recommended. This would do much to strengthen the school but it must be recognized that until very recently only a few Indonesians were able to secure college or university degrees so that university requirements

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would limit the number who could qualify for admittance to the school. In time this situation will take care of itself. In-service training for those in the field is now being conducted by the library school.

The Indonesian Library School is currently directly responsible to the Libraries Bureau of the Ministry of Education and does not have academic status.²³ The present building, which is semi-permanent, has a practice room, a library, two large lecture rooms for one hundred students, plus two smaller rooms. The enrollment, however, is limited to thirty because of lack of sufficient full-time faculty. A diploma is awarded to those finishing the program.

The curriculum includes bibliography; ordering, acquisition, book selection; cataloging; classification; reference material and information work; organization and administration of libraries; graphica; history of libraries, books, and printing. Subsidiary courses include languages (Indonesia and English are required, French and German are electives, as is Sanskrit or Arabic); copyright law; cultural history; introduction to general knowledge; palaeography and archives; and practice work.²⁴ A final examination and a paper related to library science are also required.

The pressing problems faced by this Library School relate to status, lack of materials on library science in English or in translation, lack of full-time professionally trained staff, and lack of university affiliation. The problem of instructors with professional training will probably be solved by the various programs to send librarians to the United States under I.C.A. and Asia Foundation grants, and to New Zealand and Australia under the Colombo Plan. Unesco has also played a part in sending librarians abroad for training. Realizing that librarianship is a relatively new profession in Indonesia they have come a long way in planning for the future, and eager young librarians are working together and with their students to solve many of their own problems.

Taiwan has a population of ten million and in addition attracts eight thousand overseas Chinese students from Hong Kong, Macao, Vietnam, Indonesia, Thailand, Singapore, Malaya, North Borneo, and other Asian states to attend its many universities and upper middle schools.²⁵ The standard of living is the highest in the Far East and is on a level with Japan and the Philippines. The educational facilities are among the best in that part of the world. Libraries are to be found in universities, high schools, elementary schools, and there are hundreds of public, provincial, and county libraries throughout

the island. Yet with all these high standards, the number of professionally trained librarians is comparatively small. To meet this challenge for trained personnel, the very active and alert Library Association sponsored a three month workshop for library workers in 1956²⁶ and summer workshops have been sponsored since by the Ministry of Education and the Library Association. The 1959 workshop was visited this year by one of the present authors and after meeting the students and talking with the librarians of the Library Association one would have to concur with W. A. FitzGerald, who spent two years as a library consultant in the I.C.A. Overseas Chinese Education section, in his statement that "Taiwan, from a library point of view, is one of the leaders in the Orient, and, as time progresses and as it continues to improve its collections and its library education, its influence should spread the objectives of good library service throughout Asia."²⁷

With the unsettled conditions of the island due to its nearness to the mainland of China it is unlikely that plans will be concluded for establishing a regular library school in Taipei, yet there is a need for a library school which could maintain high standards of excellence.

Although accurately the Crown Colony of Fiji Islands does not fit into this chapter yet, one of the authors was asked officially to visit the librarian of the Ramakrishna Library at Nandi to discuss the problem of library education and American assistance. The population of the colony is about 350,000 and, except for Japan, the colony has the highest literacy rate in the Afro-Asian group.²⁸ The Suva City Council Library is the oldest library on the island and was probably established in 1901 though it has not had a continuous history of existence. Its present holdings are 15,000 volumes. There is also the British Council Library, the Indian Commission Library, three subscription libraries in Suva, the Ramakrishna Library at Nandi which was started in 1927, a small library of recreational reading at Levuka, and departmental libraries of the Fiji government and training college.²⁹ Some of the private schools also have small collections of books useful to teachers and students. There are no facilities for university education in Fiji so students have to go abroad for higher education and many go to Australia.

Only one librarian has had professional training, and this was obtained in the first training class of S. R. Ranganathan in India a number of years ago. There is an awakening interest in library development on

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the island and there is a great need for in-service training of the staff. Due to the chaotic state of library organization at the present time it has been recommended that outside professional help should probably be brought to the island to establish a workshop training program for the practicing library staff members. It has been further suggested that one or probably two persons might profitably be sent to Hawaii for two years of training. The University of Hawaii is proposing an International College for the Center for Cultural and Technical Interchange between East and West in Hawaii.³⁰ This is to be a new college at this University. This program includes library training as a part of its curriculum. Their proposal recommends "an enlarged library science program [that] could make a contribution to the proposed East-West Center by training both Asian and American students. Particular attention might be given to the need for trained workers in adult education and in library service in rural areas."³¹

The curriculum would include library participation; the library in teaching; reference materials; book selection and reading guidance; cataloging and classification; administration of school libraries; library internship; children's literature; adolescent literature; and audio-visual education; promoting library use; advanced technical processes; and a seminar in school library problems.³²

This type of program of library education for students from the Far East holds many possibilities and has many advantages. The University of Hawaii "faces Asia like an open door of welcome to the United States, through which in both directions pass some of the most thoughtful and imaginative people and ideas of East and West."³³ Transition in climate, culture, educational methods, and language would often be much easier than adjustment to life on the mainland of the United States. Many students who lack educational background to enter the advanced program of library education offered in the American library schools could take the two year undergraduate program and receive an academic degree that would mean much upon their return home. Those students who show promise of profiting by further advanced work in library education could be encouraged by scholarships and grants to continue for the masters degree at an accredited library school. This would solve many of the problems of the professional schools that are unable to grant degrees to foreign students who come inadequately prepared. Also the program at the University of Hawaii could more easily be tailormade to fit

the needs of the librarians from countries where library programs are on a much smaller and simpler scale than that found in many American libraries. Course adaptations could be more easily worked out and be justified in classes where the majority come from countries with similar problems of newly developing libraries. The expense of the program would be considerably less and the practical application and implication of classroom theory could be more meaningful to the student. It is to be hoped that this exciting program will soon become a reality and not just a proposal.

Two countries in the Near East deserve mention. In Egypt, Cairo University established in 1951 a Department of Librarianship and Archives.³⁴ Its four-year course has about sixty students currently enrolled, but until the present few of them have come from other Arabic countries. The curriculum there includes bibliography, administration, descriptive cataloging, archives, classification and subject cataloging, and courses on Arabic and European reference books.

In Turkey a library school was created at the University of Ankara in 1954.³⁵ As in the case of the Japan Library School at Keio-Gijuku University, it received financial assistance to begin the program; the Ford Foundation made three grants from 1954 to 1958.³⁶ Comparing it with the Japanese school, Downs noted that it has suffered from a lack of sufficient teaching staff. Organized at the undergraduate level (like its counterpart in the Orient), it has concentrated its professional courses in the third and fourth years of university study; the curriculum includes an introduction to librarianship, courses on the history of books and printing, administration, reference and bibliography, cataloging and classification, manuscripts, periodicals and serials, methods of investigation, children's libraries, school libraries, public libraries and college and university and research libraries.³⁷ The current enrollment is about 100.

As happened in Japan, the American Library Association was asked to assist in the establishment and direction of the school. After Downs set up the school a series of Americans have served two-year terms as directors, while an advisory committee of American librarians was appointed.

Education for librarianship in Latin America traces its history nearly fifty years. Apparently the first formal training took place in 1912 in Mexico, where E. A. Chávez gave a course to the employees of the Secretariat of Communications and Public Works. However, Brazil possesses the oldest program which has operated continuously

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since its founding—that at the National Library, which began in 1915. Eight years later the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters at the University of Buenos Aires began to include library science courses in its program of studies leading to the doctorate.³⁸ However, not until the 'thirties did training for librarianship begin to make real progress in Latin America; the movement has grown steadily since then. A recent compilation³⁹ shows that there are forty-five schools and courses operating at present in Latin America; in 1958 they had 173 teachers and 1,616 students. Brazil and Argentina lead with eleven and ten programs respectively; Venezuela has four; Colombia, Cuba, and Mexico three each; most other countries have a single institution, while there are none currently operating in Bolivia, Costa Rica, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Paraguay. The following discussion comments first on Brazil and Argentina, where progress has been rapid in recent years.

Most observers of the Latin American library scene would agree that the most advanced state of library training is now found in Brazil, the region's largest and most populous country.^{40, 41} Of the eleven schools and courses there are three in São Paulo, two in Rio de Janeiro, and one each in major population centers ranging from Recife on the north to Porto Alegre on the south. The Brazilian Bibliography and Documentation Institute (I.B.B.D.), founded in 1955, offers special courses in bibliographical research in the sciences and in special library administration.⁴² It also aids library development in other ways.

Although the National Library offered courses in librarianship as early as 1915, training along modern lines dates from 1940, when the Escola de Biblioteconomia of the Escola Livre de Sociologia e Política was established in São Paulo. The A.L.A. administered a Rockefeller Foundation grant of \$27,500 for staff salaries, scholarship aid, and the preparation of materials. This five-year grant enabled the school to proceed with its plans from 1943 to 1948.⁴³ Its faculty, the majority of whom have been trained abroad, give courses composing a two-year program. This school has been influential in the development of Brazilian library education and has furnished the country not only with librarians but with library science teachers.

Nearly all of the remaining schools are attached to a university, forming part of one of the faculties and at least technically lacking independent status of their own. They operate on the undergraduate level, although recently some have indicated that they wish to give

work at the graduate level. The curricula are limited in the number and variety of offerings, but one generally finds courses in cataloging, classification, reference, administration, and the history of the book. Student bodies are small (they usually range between twenty-five and fifty). Most of the schools are marginal operations; they run on limited budgets, have very small quarters, and in only a few instances have an adequate professional library. Although quite a few of the teachers have received excellent training in the United States or elsewhere, their contribution to library education is limited, because they are usually part-time, giving one or two courses in addition to other jobs they hold in libraries (or sometimes in business). Yet the elements for a first-rate program of library education exist in Brazil, probably more than in any other Latin American nation. Certainly the size of the country calls for the training of librarians on a really professional basis, especially since the Inter-American Library School, even when it fulfills its potential, will probably not attract students from Brazil the way it will from other Latin American countries.

Perhaps the best indication of the relative maturity of Brazilian librarianship is the proposal to regulate library training by national law, as is now done for other professional fields. The Second Brazilian Library and Documentation Congress, which met in Salvador in July, 1959, devoted much of its attention to a consideration of certain aspects of this proposal, because such a law would presumably specify the duration and at least part of the curricula of library science courses.

In spite of the number of schools and the general awareness of librarianship as a profession, an acute shortage of trained staff for libraries continues to prevail in Brazil. In an attempt to meet some of the country's needs a series of short courses, generally for persons already working in libraries, has taken place over the years in such smaller cities as Curitiba, Manaus, and Natal, as well as in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. The most recent of these attempted to meet the special requirements of the libraries of the American-Brazilian binational centers. Twenty-six persons from twenty-three of the larger centers attended this introduction to the field, which was sponsored by the American Embassy and U.S. Information Service. Classes taught by two American librarians met eight hours a day for two weeks of intensive work. It is hoped that in-service training for these special librarians can continue.⁴⁴

Of all the Spanish speaking countries in South America, Argentina

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occupies first place in regard to the quality of education for librarianship. Such training is, however, highly concentrated in Buenos Aires, where three institutions—the Museo Social Argentino, the University of Buenos Aires, and the National Library—currently offer programs of study. However, that of the Museo, which began in 1936, for six years comprised only a single course. In 1942 C. V. Penna became director; the number of hours of class were increased, enrollment grew, and the two-year program came to include four courses (library administration; introduction to librarianship and history of the book; cataloging and classification; reference and bibliography), all of which began in the first year and continued in the second.⁴⁵ Penna gathered a faculty that consisted of the most outstanding figures in Argentine librarianship. However, in recent years the impact of the Museo on library education has declined; its program, while retaining the essential lines of the previous period, now includes several general cultural courses.⁴⁶

The University of Buenos Aires established a program of library training in 1922—one of the oldest in Latin America, but one which made relatively little contribution to the profession, because it consisted primarily of work in the classics. A change approved in 1949 introduced modern technical subjects into a three-year program, of which the first consisted of four general courses: introduction to literature, introduction to philosophy, introduction to history, and introduction to library science. The second year offered bibliography (first course) and cataloging and classification, while the third included bibliography (second course), bibliography and library administration. Latin and Greek were required all three years.⁴⁷ Revisions of this program, undertaken in 1952 and 1955, substituted a modern language for the Greek and Latin requirement, introduced two more general cultural courses in the first year's studies and left all professional work for the second and third years. Further modifications took place in 1958; the general cultural courses were changed and two new professional courses added (introduction to technical processes and documentation), while the content of others was revised. The curriculum now consists of fifteen courses (some one quarter in length, others two); it remains three years in length, but courses for each year are no longer specified; instead, a series of prerequisites has created a sequence of offerings in two areas: (1) technical services and (2) reference, bibliography, and documentation.

The most recently created institution for training in Buenos Aires

is the National Library School, established in 1956 and housed in the National Library. Designed primarily to offer in-service training for the present staff of that institution, it operates on the sub-collegiate level. The following comprise the courses: first year—introduction to library science, library administration I, cataloging and classification I, reference I; second year—history of the book, library administration II, cataloging and classification II, reference II, and panorama of culture. A third year was planned but has not yet been given.⁴⁸

Although the programs just discussed have evolved from different origins and at least theoretically attempt to meet different needs (exemplified by varying entrance requirements—the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters requires entrance examinations in a language and in general background as well as completion of secondary school), the outside observer cannot help but wonder whether the resultant dispersion of teachers and facilities (the most notable collection of library science materials in Argentina belongs not to one of these schools but to the Library Institute of the University of Buenos Aires) has deprived Argentina of the chance to have one really first-rate institution for library training.

The growth of library education outside of Buenos Aires has failed to match the pace of the capital. Although courses are given in La Plata and other cities, no school exists elsewhere. As a consequence, library development in such important provincial centers as Córdoba, Rosario, Mendoza, and La Plata lags because of the lack of opportunities for training. Efforts to resolve this situation have not, as yet, resulted in a permanent training agency in any of the provinces. Córdoba offers the most promising situation, because the University there has made plans, with the advice of one of the present writers, for a library school within its Faculty of Humanities, but the school has not yet begun operations.

As in Brazil, there is a growing demand for some training for persons already working in libraries; in recent years numerous short courses, in some instances taught by visiting American librarians (e.g., at the University of Tucumán in 1956), have attempted to meet this demand. In Córdoba a more ambitious project took place from 1957 to 1959 at the Instituto de Intercambio Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano (I.I.C.A.N.A.), the American-Argentine binational center. A three-way program consisted of an elementary training course (repeated several times), an advanced course given by a visiting American librarian and the formation of a professional library.⁴⁹

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Turning now from Brazil and Argentina, the Latin American countries with the most advanced level of library training, to the other republics, one finds that the pattern of development exhibits many similarities. The first training provided has generally taken the form of the short course, a number of which were offered in the 'forties. Three of them, given in Bogotá, Quito, and Lima, benefited from the cooperation of the A.L.A.⁵⁰ The first of these, consisting of a six-week course and aided by a grant of \$9,250 from the Rockefeller Foundation,⁵¹ offered training in the Colombian capital during July and August of 1942. Although the seventy-nine students represented all types of libraries, twenty-five came from the National Library. Instruction in Quito, given in March and April of 1944, resembled that in Bogotá, but only twenty-two students completed the course, while there were thirty-three enrolled in Lima.⁵² In Peru the program aimed at training persons for positions in the National Library rather than at giving instruction to those already working in libraries. Not only did it extend over a six-month period (January-June 1944), but it encompassed a more nearly complete professional curriculum. The offerings in all three cases stressed technical processes, with the greatest number of class hours being devoted to cataloging and classification; the only other course common to the programs was library organization and administration. Quito and Bogotá included book selection, while Quito and Lima offered reference and bibliography. The greater amount of time available in Lima permitted the following additional courses to be offered: Peruvian, Spanish-American and Spanish bibliography; children's libraries; history of the book in America; and paleography.

Short courses have also taken place in other countries—e.g., Bolivia and Costa Rica.⁵³ While there is no doubt that they have played a part in improving library service in these countries, they have probably made a genuine contribution to library education only where they have led to the establishment of permanent programs or of library schools. As a result of the progress in library education in the past twenty or thirty years, today the majority of the Latin American republics have a library course or school. As they have developed, these courses and schools have tended to share some common characteristics with their Argentine and Brazilian counterparts. They have varying admission requirements, but generally require graduation from secondary schools; they are usually incorporated into educational institutions (although in degree of autonomy some approach

independence); and they exhibit great similarity in their courses of study.⁵⁴ By way of summary, one might note that in a recent analysis of Latin American librarianship Penna made the following general observations about training in the field. First, no legislation regulates the courses in library science and gives standing to the titles and diplomas obtained from them. Second, the various schools base their offerings on the same fundamental library knowledge, although their curricula vary somewhat. Third, library education still concerns itself only with basic training; it has not yet begun to deal with planning, problems, and possibilities of each nation's library development.⁵⁵

Marietta Daniels points out that one of the fundamental needs of library service in this area of the world is an increased number of all types of opportunities for training librarians (schools, short courses, seminars, meetings, internships, etc.).⁵⁶ Penna goes further and suggests that, in regard to library schools, it is necessary to determine (a) the number and location of schools in each country, (b) the difference between those which will prepare fully trained librarians and those which will merely train library assistants, (c) the curricula, number of class hours, laboratory work, etc., that each type of school should encompass, and (d) the inclusion in library legislation of regulations for schools, including the entrance requirements, titles to be awarded, and certification of librarians.⁵⁷

The preceding pages have reviewed the present status of education for librarianship in three major areas: Asia, the Near East, and Latin America. The discussion that follows offers general observations on library training in relation to these regions and attempts to point out factors that should be considered in planning for the future. It is obvious that the needs for library training in these newly developing countries are so great that no one method offers a way of meeting them all, and it is quite beyond the realm of practicality to suppose that all persons needed for library work in these nations could or should be sent for training to countries with advanced library development. Several obstacles to such a course exist, even if it were desirable on theoretical grounds. The first is the problem of cost. It is expensive to bring foreign library leaders and students to the United States, Canada, or one of the western European countries. Second, there is the language problem. Not everyone needing training knows English, French, or other western European languages, nor is this knowledge necessary in all cases. Third, the needs of newly developing countries are not such that everyone requires the advanced

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training given by countries with more advanced library services. At best, then, programs of study abroad "can actually train directly only a relatively limited number of persons for professional library positions in any one country."⁵⁸

Therefore, most students have to receive their training in their own country. The most important question that arises in this area is the matter of library schools. As has already been pointed out, some countries (e.g., Argentina, Brazil, Japan, and Thailand) already have one or more library schools and/or a number of other library training institutions, but some may be below a desirable qualitative standard. In such cases, the problem faced is how to improve them so that they can make the necessary contribution to rapid library development in their country. In countries presently lacking library schools the question of whether such institutions should be created inevitably arises. The establishment of a library school in a newly developing country calls for careful evaluation of all relevant factors. A preliminary survey should consider such questions as the present and potential need for librarians, the curriculum required to train them, and the question of affiliation for the proposed school. The implications of staff and financial needs should be carefully examined. The matter of quarters, equipment, and professional tools should also be considered. Here the services of an impartial, outside surveyor seem to be called for, if a thorough and objective analysis is to be made. Such experts can often be secured through programs of technical assistance of individual nations or international agencies. If a favorable report is made, the way may be cleared for further action.

In this connection, Downs has made a number of observations about America's role in establishing library schools abroad.⁵⁹ In general, one might summarize his views as favoring university affiliation for library schools, and as requiring a sufficiently large American faculty for five years, after which qualified nationals could gradually replace it. He suggests that the special financial obligations of such a program might be met by a foundation or by governmental support. He further recommends advisory assistance from local and foreign groups interested in the project, the latter to be achieved preferably by an official connection with A.L.A. through a regularly constituted committee, which is "advantageous from many points of view."⁶⁰ The following chart summarizes pertinent facts about the Japan, Turkish and Inter-American Library Schools—the three most conspicuous examples of American aid to date. In connection with a

school it should be pointed out that it is unrealistic to assume that the level of training for librarianship can be markedly different from that of other professions; if schools of law and medicine function on the undergraduate level, library schools will necessarily conform to the pattern. Here, too, the economic factor deserves consideration: financial rewards of librarianship in most newly developing countries would not justify training on the postgraduate level.

LIBRARY SCHOOLS ABROAD RECEIVING AMERICAN FOUNDATION SUPPORT

	<i>Japan Library School</i>	<i>Turkish Library School</i>	<i>Inter-American Library School</i>
Date Established	1951	1954	1956
Affiliation	Keio-Gijuku University	University of Ankara	University of Antioquia (Medellin)
Source of Support	Rockefeller Foundation	Ford Foundation	Rockefeller Foundation
Total Grants Announced to Date	\$202,800	\$231,975	\$323,000
Level of Instruction	Undergraduate	Undergraduate	Undergraduate
Length of Course	2 years	4 years	3 years
Present Number of Students (Approximate)	51	100	*
First Director	Robert L. Gitler	Robert B. Downs	Gaston Litton
Some American Faculty?	yes (now visiting only)	yes	yes
Scholarships Available for Study in U.S.?	yes	yes	yes
Advisory Assistance	A.L.A. Advisory Committee	A.L.A. Advisory Committee	International Advis. Comm.

* Classes suspended during 1959.

SOURCES: Marietta Daniels, "New Inter-American Library School," *Library Journal*, 82:2887-2889, Nov. 15, 1957; Robert B. Downs, "How to Start a Library School," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, 52:399-405, June 1958; Ford Foundation, *Annual Report, 1954-1958* [New York, The Foundation, 1955-1959]; Rockefeller Foundation, *Annual Report, 1951-1956*, New York [The Foundation, 1952-1957].

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Library schools are not, of course, the entire answer to the question of training within a country. In the sense that library schools cannot turn out enough persons to bring about modern organization and service in their country's libraries until they have operated successfully for some years, they look more to the future than to the present. Other devices, such as the short course, the institute, and the in-service training program, must be used to give some technical preparation to the untrained persons who staff most of the libraries in the newly developing country. Short courses given in Latin America, Japan (1903), the Philippines (1914), and Thailand (1951) and more recently in Formosa and Indonesia, have provided the only formal training that many librarians have ever received. Such courses usually extend from two or three weeks to two or three months. In the case of Fulbright lecturers the work has often lasted the better part or all of an academic year, and there are numerous instances of this.⁶¹ In Latin America it is often possible to secure a Spanish-speaking American librarian for special assignments of this kind, but in other parts of the world an interpreter is sometimes required.

Although attendance is voluntary, the large enrollments and generally enthusiastic participation of the students testify to the value of such courses. Because of the great needs of the students the short courses usually encompass the entire gamut of the field—library objectives, selection and acquisition, cataloging and classification, circulation, reference, quarters and equipment. Occasionally it is possible to offer courses devoted exclusively to a subject such as the two month course in reference service given in Córdoba, Argentina, in the summer of 1958. Clearly there is a need for additional courses in such areas as book selection, cataloging, and public relations. It may be possible for the expert who is advising a country or an institution on library development to give such a course in conjunction with his other duties. The contribution of the short course to the long range development of a country's library services may be limited, but it is important in meeting immediate needs for improved library organization and services.

Related to the short course are the seminars and lecture series which have been undertaken under the auspices of the Fulbright programs and Rockefeller Foundation. The recipients have often presented the only up-to-date information on American librarianship available in the country in question.

The availability of the necessary professional tools relates directly

to the success of education and training in the field of library science. Collections of professional literature adequate for teaching purposes—necessarily including large quantities in English—rarely exist in the foreign library school. Problems of exchange have complicated obtaining publications from the United States, but not enough effort has been made to discover potential sources of these publications. These include the local U.S.I.S. branch which usually has a book presentation program, special grants on a non-recurring basis from the local government, and such philanthropic organizations as the Asia Foundation. Certain publications are available on request. Unesco book coupons will help to solve problems in soft currency countries, while in other cases it is necessary to face the reality that dollars must be obtained. However, careful analysis of needs and good selection policies usually reduce the number of tools necessary.

Obtaining essential tools in English solves, of course, only part of the problem. There remains the larger issue of the problem of translation and adaptation of such tools into the language of the country. In the case of a language spoken by many millions of persons (e.g., Spanish, Japanese, Arabic), this is much less of a problem than in the case of languages used by relatively few people (e.g., Thai and Tamil). Some basic tools like the Library of Congress *Rules for Descriptive Cataloging* and the Vatican Code have appeared in Spanish and Portuguese editions. At least one recently published cataloging textbook, Thelma Eaton's *Cataloging and Classification*, has been published in Spanish and Thai editions. Several professional tools also have been translated into Japanese.

Works written in foreign languages often draw heavily upon American and British predecessors. Bibliographies of available titles, both original and translated, exist in a few cases.⁶² More compilations of this type should be undertaken so that each newly developing country can recognize what is available for training librarians in its own and related languages. The number of journals available in the languages of newly developing countries is increasing rapidly. As an indication of this one might cite the appearance of the first Arabic periodical in the field in 1958.

However, in many instances sufficient tools for teaching are not available. Library schools need to produce their own texts and syllabi, but this requires full time faculty, not the part-time teachers found in a number of countries. Such programs have begun already at the Japan Library School and at the Inter-American Library School. The

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Pan American Union is also stimulating the preparation of a new series to be known as "Manuales del Bibliotecario." Already under preparation are a dictionary of library science terminology and a manual on book selection and acquisition.⁶³

Similarly library meetings can contribute, in the broader sense, to the training of the individual librarian. In newly developing countries they do not generally take place as frequently and as regularly as do the meetings of the A.L.A. and the Library Association. However, in recent years at least thirty-seven have taken place in Latin America alone; many of them have resulted in published recommendations.⁶⁴ Such recommendations, especially those dealing with the status and training of librarians, may shape the pattern of education for librarianship in the country in question. For example, the Japan Library Association has a long history (it was inaugurated in 1893), and the Japan School Library Association celebrated its decennial anniversary in August 1959. Both associations have been active supporters of library training programs and at the annual meeting of the Japan Library Association in May 1959 a new Library Education Department was inaugurated to undertake problems similar to those of the Library Education Division of A.L.A., with special emphasis on "a required course in elementary librarianship in colleges and revision of the library laws."

The Thai Library Association came into existence during the Fulbright program of library education, 1951-56, and has participated in offering short courses since the end of the Fulbright program. Members have also been active in translating library tools and in developing a union catalog. Librarians of Indonesia also carry on a program of meetings for its members. Many of the librarians of Indonesia have recently returned from professional training especially in the United States, in Australia and New Zealand as a result of the Colombo plan.

Before turning to the question of sending for training and education persons from newly developing countries to the United States, the United Kingdom, or other countries with highly advanced library development, it might be well to consider an intermediate possibility—library schools attempting to serve the needs of countries in a given region which are similar in library and general cultural development and which use the same language. Latin America offers an interesting example of such a school which aims at preparing "professional librarians with sufficient academic background and technical knowledge to direct and administer libraries of all kinds."⁶⁵ Assisted by a three-

year grant of \$58,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation and affiliated with the University of Antioquia in Medellín, Colombia, the Inter-American Library School opened in February 1957 with thirty-five students from three Latin American countries. An International Advisory Committee determined the School's objectives, planned its curriculum and nominated its first director.⁶⁶ (See chart p. 264.)

The School requires graduation from secondary school for admission and thus operates on the undergraduate level; the Advisory Committee therefore felt that the curriculum should combine cultural and professional courses. The first year's work emphasizes the former through survey courses in the history of civilization, philosophy, universal literature, social sciences, natural and physical sciences, and art; it contains only two introductory courses in library science (history of books and libraries; introduction to library organization and services). The second year consists of a group of core courses in library science: book selection; cataloging and classification; reference; bibliography and bibliographic services; library administration; serial publications; national bibliography; and the library in society. The third year's program contains courses like those offered by the graduate library school in the United States—e.g., government publications; problems in reference; problems in technical service; education for librarianship—and some special offerings—e.g., "the planning, activation and reorganization of library services" and "Planning the use of national resources of materials in libraries, archives and other information centers." The language of instruction is Spanish, but the study of foreign languages receives considerable emphasis during the first two years; courses in English, French, Italian, and German are required.⁶⁷

The original plan envisaged a publications program aimed at producing first the syllabi and manuals needed for the School's courses (of which several have already appeared) and then studies helpful for the development of library service in Latin America. The School has already formed an excellent professional library.

It is too early to assess the permanent effect that the Inter-American Library School may have on library training in Latin America. After a successful beginning, internal difficulties at the University of Antioquia resulted in the suspension of classes during 1959. As a result, the third year's courses have not yet been offered.

The library training program in Taiwan attracts Chinese students from Hong Kong and other areas of the South East, while the schools

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in the Philippines and New Zealand and Australia attract English speaking students from Indonesia, Ceylon, and Cambodia. Certainly a regional plan of library training offers countries lacking a school the possibility of sending their students for training designed to meet the special needs of libraries in an area and of doing so at considerably less cost than would be required for study in the United States. The prospect of several such schools—one to serve the Arabic speaking countries of the Near and Middle East and one or more to serve perhaps Southeast Asia and Western Africa—offers an interesting possibility for speculation. Would they contribute more importantly to education for librarianship in their respective areas than would a series of isolated and probably marginal schools? Is a common language an essential ingredient to their success? Is the support of philanthropic foundations necessary in their creation? Can the matter of local pride and the feeling that the country with the school has an unfair advantage prove insurmountable obstacles? What are the special contributions that such a school can make?

To send students abroad for training has been perhaps the traditional way for newly developing countries to obtain librarians. They have previously sent them to countries in western Europe, but in recent years an ever increasing number has come to the United States. Such students often lack the background—both formal and informal—of American students entering graduate school. The foreign student often faces problems in obtaining the master's degree. Because the role of the returning student includes helping to create a higher academic and professional status for libraries and librarians, the prestige of a degree from an American school is a not insignificant element in the benefit he hopes to derive from his stay in the United States. Therefore, whenever possible the student from overseas should be chosen from among those who can meet the admission requirements of library schools organized within the framework of graduate colleges.

Because many foreign students are not accustomed to the level of work required of the American graduate, and because of problems in adjustment, understanding English, etc., the student must often reduce his study load to two-thirds or three-fourths of a regular program. In such cases, he should receive encouragement to remain the additional semester or summer session necessary. For students whose lack of educational background precludes candidacy for the master's degree, the possibility of taking enough undergraduate courses (in

library science and other disciplines) to obtain the bachelor's degree should not be overlooked. Some library school faculty feel that a certificate might solve this type of problem.⁶⁸

In addition it might be wise to consider another possibility as a transition step for some students from Asiatic countries who find adjustment to western culture, climate, and food a bit difficult and whose academic background might not be adequate for admission to the graduate program of library science. It is suggested that enrollment at the undergraduate level library school at the University of Hawaii might prove most helpful for many of these students. A year in Hawaii would make adjustment easier for those who then could be recommended for further graduate study in a library school in the United States.

Another side of the question of improving education for librarianship in newly developing countries is the training of the library science teachers themselves. Most newly developing countries lack enough technically and professionally trained people, and this is as true of librarianship as it is of other professions. Many of the students from Asia who receive professional library degrees from American schools find that they are drafted to teach library science courses immediately upon returning home. Often such students have not expected to teach and had no experience in working in or visiting American libraries after finishing their degree. They lack experience and maturity to develop sound courses of librarianship with the necessary modifications needed for their country. Although many existing schools and courses suffer from a lack of qualified staff, there are, nevertheless, some excellent teachers in most areas and others who could become excellent teachers and library school administrators with a little more training and guidance; still other librarians could and should be brought into the teaching of library science.

In general, how to help strengthen the training program for future teachers of library science is a serious problem in most foreign countries. The Department of Cultural Affairs of the Pan American Union recently made a proposal for providing advanced training for Latin American teachers. The project suggests bringing five different groups of persons—a total of approximately 125—to an American library school for three separate special programs within a three year period. The three programs would be first, an advanced course for teachers and directors of permanent university level professional library science schools. Its objective would be to provide these persons with an

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opportunity to observe the rapid changes in library procedures and teaching methods that have taken place outside their own countries in recent years and to engage in supervised research. The second course would be for teachers of basic training courses in library science, in an attempt to satisfy the urgent need for providing some elementary or basic types of instruction for persons now working in libraries, most of whom have sub-collegiate educational background. The third course would provide an opportunity for training teachers for specialized library and documentation organization and services. In order to provide an ample number of well trained teachers of library science it is planned to repeat the first and second courses, once the initial cycle has been completed.⁶⁹

This project offers very interesting possibilities of attacking the problem by raising the professional level of the teachers. Since each teacher will presumably reach large numbers of students, it is not difficult to justify the expenditure of time and money that the project will require. If such a plan could be carried on for other areas of the world such as Asia, Africa, and the Near East, a real contribution to the development of libraries could be made, although the repercussions would not, of course, be felt for some time.

Occasionally special types of training have been available in the United States. Leadership grants and special field seminar programs have brought and continue to bring many Japanese educators and librarians to America for two to six months study of libraries and library schools. In the spring of 1957 and 1958 the United States Information Agency sponsored a ten week training program for local librarians in binational centers in Latin America. Professionally the programs aimed at introducing these librarians to the goals of library service as practiced in good American libraries and at exposing them to various technical processes of library science which can be adapted to the needs of binational center libraries and Japanese libraries. The Latin American program consisted of eight weeks of classes at the Department of Library Science of Catholic University of America and two weeks of practical experience and visits to libraries and related institutions. Ten librarians participated in 1957 and eight in 1958. They came from Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, and Peru. Both Catholic University and the Information Agency felt that the program succeeded in widening the vision of and inspiring the participants to search for means of making their binational center libraries more effective. As

anticipated, a number of these grantees are no longer working in the libraries from which they came. Some teach English in the same centers, while others have resigned completely, but those who remain are among the most effective of the librarians in these institutions.

Finally, many students and librarians from overseas wish to visit libraries in countries like France, England, and the United States. Such visits are often scheduled without a clear conception of the benefits to be derived and fail to take into account the needs of the individual. One librarian from Latin America visited 150 libraries during a ninety day stay in the United States! Those who have worked closely with foreign students realize the great benefit to be gained from such visits, but at the same time feel strongly that an extensive number of visits to libraries consisting of one or two days each does not constitute a meaningful experience for a person from overseas. It would seem far wiser for him to remain in one or two of these libraries a week or longer. Not only will this afford him an opportunity to see and to participate in daily operations, thus putting in practice some of what he has learned in library school, but it will help give him the necessary background for visits to other libraries. Such assignments should not take place in the largest libraries, which provide situations that differ radically from anything likely to be found in newly developing countries. Instead, the small and medium libraries can provide a context of experience which bears some resemblance to the situation in which the foreign student will find himself upon returning to his homeland. It is essential, then, to have careful planning in scheduling the visits of these persons to American libraries.

Clearly the newly developing countries of Asia, the Near East, and Latin America need trained librarians who can improve and expand their library services. What are the implications of the previous discussion for the government officials and educators who are responsible for securing such persons? Acceptance of their responsibility requires a course of action; it calls for analysis of the country's needs for library services and the human resources with which to meet these needs; it calls for a realization that just as needs vary in level and type, so the possible ways of meeting them differ one from another. The first step involves the selection of the individual who is to receive training. Factors to be considered in this choice might include the following points.

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CHECK LIST FOR SELECTING PERSONS FOR
LIBRARY SCIENCE TRAINING

1. Personal factors
 - a. Leadership potential
 - b. Adjustment potential
 - c. Ability to influence others
2. Scholastic factors
 - a. Learning potential for library science
 - b. Foreign language skills
 - c. Formal educational background
3. Professional factors
 - a. Leadership in the library profession
 - b. Standing in the library associations and groups
 - c. Ability to teach library science to others
 - d. Role in library education
4. External factors
 - a. Time available for training
 - b. Funds available for training

Once the individual has been selected, attention must be given to the program which offers the greatest potential benefit. Factors such as the following might affect this decision.

CHECK LIST FOR PLANNING PROGRAMS FOR
LIBRARY SCIENCE TRAINING

1. The type of training
 - a. Study for a degree in library science
 - b. Other formal study
 - c. Internship and/or work experience in a library
 - d. Visits to and/or observations of libraries
2. The place of training
 - a. In his own country
 - b. In another country within the region
 - c. In a country with advanced library development
3. The period of training
 - a. Short term (less than six months)
 - b. Medium term (six to twelve months)
 - c. Long term (one year or more)

The interplay of the ten factors above produces a total of thirty-six

combinations, from which the one best suited to the individual and to the nation's needs must be selected. To do so is not an easy task, especially when those who make the final decision often do not themselves have great familiarity with library education.

It is significant that the governments of newly developing countries are recognizing, in increasing numbers, the importance of libraries and library education. If they select wisely the persons to receive library training and plan carefully the programs of training they receive, libraries will make a significant contribution to the development and progress that will take place in the future.

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Library Buildings in Newly Developing Countries

HAROLD HOLDSWORTH

TO ANYONE WHO HAS WATCHED the progress of libraries in tropical areas since the end of World War II the changes must seem to be remarkable. In 1945, in most British dependent territories, for instance, there were no institutions of university standing, inadequate public library services, if there were any at all, and a scarcity of trained librarians. Since that time there have grown up university colleges, public library services, special libraries, and a considerable body of trained people.

The implementation of educational programs in dependent territories involved provision for library services at all levels, and one thing followed quickly upon another. In Jamaica, for instance, a University College Library was begun in 1948, and a public library service inaugurated in the following year. At the present time there are nine parish library buildings of excellent design throughout the island, and a public library headquarters in Kingston, as well as a modern and recently enlarged University College Library. All are staffed by qualified local librarians. It was inevitable that there should also come about an extension to the Institute of Jamaica, qualified supervision of the Government Archives, a library book bindery operated as a joint venture of the Jamaica Library Service and the University College, and a Library Association. So within a few years in countries like Jamaica, the Eastern Caribbean, Ghana, Nigeria, Burma, Ceylon, and Singapore, library buildings have arisen which are proud symbols of a new era and worthy representatives of modern library services. So it has also been in other countries within the tropical belt.

The tropics and sub-tropics—especially parts of Southern Africa, South and Central America, Japan, Hong Kong, and Singapore—
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possess many buildings, of course, that vie with those of Europe and North America, but as climates know no political boundaries so the same architectural problems impinge upon rich and poor countries alike. The adequacy of the solutions depends primarily upon the material and human resources at their disposal. For this reason, instead of attempting to discuss library building developments in specific countries or giving too detailed descriptions of individual libraries, an attempt will be made here to outline some of the problems facing designers and builders of libraries in tropical areas generally and the means taken to solve them.

Since the war the tropics have been "on the map" as never before. Most tropical countries are underdeveloped, and, whatever their political status, they are regarded as very much the concern and responsibility of the rest of the world. Great efforts, from within and without, are being made, therefore, to develop their natural resources, create new industries, and improve education, all of which involves building, which in turn calls for local technical knowledge and skill and local materials. The second world war fostered industries in many countries, and furthered research into the effects of tropical conditions on essential materials. Ever since it ended the multiplication of local industries and research into the nature and use of local materials has gone on. In addition to what underdeveloped countries have done for themselves, assistance has come from colonial and protecting powers, from governments organized in regional groups to tackle common problems, from international organizations, and from charitable and educational trusts and foundations.

As far as libraries and building are concerned, there is a hierarchy of active organizations, of which it would seem necessary to mention only a few as examples. At the international level, there are the Housing and Town and Country Planning Section of the Department of Social Affairs of the United Nations, the U.N.O. Regional Economic Commissions, and the International Council for Building Research Studies and Documentation in Europe; on the regional level, the Commission for Technical Cooperation in Africa South of the Sahara, the Pan American Union, and the Caribbean Commission; and on the national level, the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research of Great Britain, with its ramification of research stations, such as the Building Research Station at Watford. All these are concerned with housing and town planning problems, with existing building practices, and new techniques; with methods of

testing local materials, structural components, and even entire structures; and with scientific studies of particular building problems. One of their prime objectives is the substitution of local for imported materials, and much technical information on the preparation and use of local materials—clays, gypsum, lime, woods, etc.—has been published. Particular attention has been paid to the making of building blocks from materials easily available locally—sands, and lateritic earths—with cement as a stabilizer, so that now cement-stabilized building blocks are a common building medium, and the durability of local structures has been greatly improved as a result. At the same time local cement making has been encouraged. Since 1950 cement factories have started production in Northern Rhodesia, Nigeria, Uganda, Kenya, Jamaica, Trinidad, and elsewhere.

Progress in building is retarded by the lack of trained building technicians and skilled artisans. In some areas local workmen may have skill only in traditional methods which may prove unsuitable for the needs of a rapidly developing industry. Where there is a high percentage of illiteracy, training is the more difficult. Under such circumstances building materials and finishes are generally inferior to those in Europe and America. This may not be true, however, of particular materials, like stone, long used traditionally or used in the raw, or when traditional skills can be applied as, for example, to woodworking by Sikhs in Uganda, or where there are new settlers skilled in the building trades, like Italians in East Africa who make excellent terrazzo and mosaics. It is possible, for instance, in East Africa to complete an excellent building from local materials, with the exception of glass and steel (though steel frames and windows are manufactured in Kenya), but purely African building remains very backward. The library of Makerere College was built by a European foreman mainly with Sikh and Indian *fundis* and African laborers, and windows, acoustic tiles, and cork flooring were imported, as was the cement used for heavy reinforcement. Judging from Uganda alone, the present building boom is having a rapidly beneficial effect upon the variety and quality of materials, and workmanship generally, and upon the availability of mechanical equipment for large projects.

Architects have been rare phenomena in many underdeveloped areas and the local public works departments, largely under the direction of civil engineers, have been, until recent years, the principal building organizations in, for example, East and West Africa, Malaya,

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and rural India. Events, therefore, have favored architects and engineers. There has been an unprecedented influx of them into tropical countries, with almost unlimited opportunities for experimentation, at least as far as the English have been concerned, at a time when the outlook in architecture is perhaps more international than ever before. What has happened of architectural importance in one country has not been lost on the others. Moreover, the flow has been in both directions; while American and European architects have been given commissions abroad, indigenous prospective architects have been sent for study to Europe and the United States. The architecture of the United States and of South America, with its regard for sun control and its concrete technology, have obviously exerted great influence, as has the American approach to library design in general. There is now a considerable accumulation of experience on tropical building and design, and this, with freedom afforded to architects, the loosening of constricting ties with Western traditions, and the idealism and sense of social obligation which so often accompanies the performance of tasks in underdeveloped countries, has produced a series of exciting library buildings. Since the problems faced and the means at the disposal of architects are much the same, it would not be surprising if the general effect was near uniformity in design and appearance, largely attributable to the sun-screen devices so necessary in the tropics. "Buildings always wrapped in lace can become monotonous even faster than the dull nudities of speculative office buildings," the editor of the *Architectural Forum* has commented, in criticism of a tendency to use screens as ornaments instead of for functional purposes. Marcel Breuer, a functionalist, considered that the sun control device on the outside of a building was so important a part of open architecture as to develop into a form as characteristic as the Doric column. Certainly it is a prevailing characteristic of tropical architecture and tropical libraries.

In general, the buildings look as if they are built for the tropics. National influences are seen at their strongest in countries which have a long architectural record and strong traditions—India, South America, the Arab world, and Japan. In British territories the new architecture seems less "national" than generally tropical in appearance. Western functionalism and technology are strongly in evidence throughout. Sigfried Giedion has written in his book, *Architecture, You and Me*, that "Through its contacts with both primitive civilizations and ancient civilizations, contemporary architecture has en-

larged both its domain and its scope. It has been deepened as well as widened."¹ Le Corbusier, working in India, has been influenced by existing forms while creating new forms of his own. E. Maxwell Fry has put into his sun screens in West Africa strong sculptural forms in rhythmical patterns which he considers appropriate to tropical surroundings. More self-consciously Edward D. Stone and José L. Sert have tried to capture local atmosphere in their U. S. Embassy buildings in New Delhi and Baghdad, with, in Stone's case, detailing "deliberately attuned to the traditionally intricate rhythms of Indian craft." In contrast to the personal approach are the functional, efficient, but anonymous buildings created by teamwork in the offices of large architectural firms, of which, as with some West African buildings, it would be difficult to say who did what.

Ellen Jawdat, writing in *Architectural Design*, described the predicament of indigenous Iraqi architects very well:

They are constantly torn by conflicts, between forms the more daring accept and the more conservative merely find baffling, between structure which is technically possible and that which can economically be achieved under local building conditions. . . . The central problem, as they see it, is to find a truly indigenous expression for Iraq today. Beyond the rational discipline of their European or American training and the appeal of the functional approach to design, we find a constant effort to use effectively the traditional materials of the region, to incorporate familiar architectural forms, to make use of time-honoured and often ingenious building customs, and create spatial patterns rooted in the Arab consciousness.²

Librarians, too, in recent years, have traveled extensively. The scope of their work has been immeasurably widened by welfare plans for overseas dependencies, like the colonial development and welfare schemes of the British government, which have enabled them to build university libraries in Nigeria, Ghana, Jamaica, Uganda, Singapore, Ceylon, and Rhodesia; by the establishment of information and library services by the United States government and by the British Council; and by Unesco, which has sent experts to assist with library services in member states, and, through them, has created excellent pilot project library buildings at Medellin in Colombia and Enugu in Eastern Nigeria. The number of librarians giving serious thought to library building must be greater than ever before.

The tropics are characterized in the main by relatively high temperatures combined with excessive humidity, long periods of intense

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solar radiation, heavy rainfall concentrated in relatively brief periods, small variations in temperature, and, in some areas, by distinct prevailing breezes. Protection against solar radiation and humidity determines, therefore, the elements of design and construction. The tropical pattern of climate is by no means uniform, and variations can be very great between hot dry, hot humid, monsoon, upland, and island climates; while seas and lakes temper with breezes. In the hot dry climates, with very high day temperature, hot winds, low humidity, and, in the short winter, cold nights, the objectives are to provide shade, keep the air temperature down, prevent desiccation, and keep out intense heat radiated from the ground and surrounding buildings. Circulation of air is not so important. One can expect thick walls, with small, high windows built of materials with a high heat capacity, that neither heat up excessively during the day nor lose heat too rapidly at night; buildings closely spaced for mutual shading; the use of sheltered courts with high walls, and cooling water if available. A strong vertical treatment of facades creates satisfyingly deep shadows. Horizontal treatment and stucco finishes collect dust. Glazed mosaics and tiles weather well, but heat up excessively, and are only for shaded walls. Colors burn out with the sun. Thus the architect turns to plain concrete, as does Le Corbusier in Northern India, and to local bricks, as in Iraq where yellow brick is the prime walling material. Effect is obtained from the weathering surfaces of these materials and from texture and shadow created by design. The northern Sudan and northern Nigeria share this trying climate.

Hot humid climates have only slight variations of temperature, and the main objective is to keep air circulating and allow the buildings to cool quickly at night. Structure can be light, it should keep out the sun and excessive glare from clouded skies, and catch whatever breezes there are. As body temperature is regulated by the evaporation of moisture the slightest breezes have a markedly beneficial effect upon comfort, and in order to catch them fenestration needs to be generous. There are two fundamental types of buildings in the tropics, the one looking outward to use the breeze (not as in the temperate zone to seek the light), the other looking inwards to create shade.

The monsoon climate is intermediate between hot humid and hot dry, and requires heavy buildings with shading in the rainy seasons and provision for air movement in the drier seasons. The courtyard plan is common.

The upland climate, sunny but relatively cool, with a wide swing

in temperature from day to night, requires shading during the day and indoor warmth at night.

Under these conditions the librarian looks for sun control, breeze control, and insulation against heat and cold. Extreme durability, which depends upon good workmanship and design, is necessary in buildings which might be subject also to earthquakes or hurricanes. Only careful design and construction will deter termites. Prescribed vents for air circulation may need to be covered with wire mesh against insects and (in Uganda) bats, thereby reducing air movement and light by as much as 25 per cent. Similar screens, in hot dry areas, will be persistently clogged with dust. That no building will be perfect is certain, and compromises are unavoidable.

It is not always possible, even in the tropics, to site a building ideally. The ideal siting would seem to be north-south, when small overhangs would ward off the sun's rays from the north and south facades most of the time. Elevations facing south-east, north-east, north-west, and south-west require a mixture of vertical and horizontal shading devices. East-west elevations are the most difficult since they face low morning and evening suns, and only solid vertical obstructions can keep the low solar rays from their windows. Trees will do; so will other buildings; or no windows at all; or banks of overlapping vertical louvers, preferably adjustable. Makerere College library in Uganda faces north-east and south-west and at certain times of the year it catches the low setting and rising suns which penetrate directly through the pierced ceramic grille screens, so that curtains are necessary; it was thought that trees would provide the necessary protection eventually, and that the light and breezes coming through open screens which, in any case, shade the building the greater part of the time, would compensate for this short-term inconvenience.

Sun control devices are the most noticeable feature of tropical and semi-tropical libraries. They are external obstructions which intercept the rays of the sun before the heat becomes trapped behind glass and fills the interior of the building with solar heat. They take many forms: verandahs, eyebrow projections, pierced screens and walls, hoods, egg-crates, vertical and horizontal fins, and shutters. Some devices are adjustable. Commonly they are built into the facade, but they are increasingly being built as independent structures attached to and shading inner glazed walls. At the University College Ibadan, the pierced sun screen is the wall; there is no glazing, rain and damp being controlled by doors between the outer wall and the book

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stacks. Today it requires a good deal of ingenuity to invent a new sun control device. Materials commonly employed are concrete, aluminium, wood, ceramic tile, brick, and non-actinic glass.

All the African west coast libraries have screening of one kind or another against direct sun and sky glare, which is excessive in the hot, humid tropics. Certain sun control devices are also effective against rain. They present opportunities for generous glazing, shading the glass and subduing the light in one-room width buildings, while allowing adequate light penetration in wide buildings. The libraries of the Ghana Library Board at Accra, Kumasi, and Sekondi have view windows. Makerere College library, because of its screened verandahs, has been able to have windows from floor to ceiling along the entire length of each side of the building on two floors. Views through some tropical windows are irresistible, and a view into the library can have considerable propaganda value, particularly when illuminated at night. In the Caribbean and South America adjustable horizontal louvers of wood or aluminium often replace windows. The University of Puerto Rico library has deep protruding egg crate sun breakers with inset adjustable horizontal louvers.

Ventilation of buildings is usually strictly controlled by local authorities, especially in warm humid climates. It must be possible to open all windows. It is typical of tropical libraries which are not air conditioned that they are generally one-room wide to insure cross-ventilation. They tend, therefore, to be long and narrow. High level windows disperse pockets of warm air. The parish libraries of the Jamaica Library Service have high level windows above the wall stacks, and adjustable louvers below them. Ashanti Regional library at Kumasi has "breathing" blocks instead of louvers. An internal court can provide cross ventilation that would otherwise be lacking in a wide building; at the same time it can soothe with its vegetation and dehumidify the air through plant respiration. It should, of course, be shaded.

Air conditioning greatly affects tropical design. It is usually out of the question for an entire building but is often possible for part of it. Indeed, room conditioners are now commonplace in Nigeria, although a novelty as recently as 1956. Uncertainty about maintenance and cost are the usual deterrents. It is doubtless a wise measure, in some areas, to install sliding rather than fixed windows as a precaution against breakdowns in the supply of electric current. Precautions against sun penetration are not precluded by air conditioning. It is claimed that conditioning allows such substantial reductions in the

height of rooms that the total savings may pay for the air conditioning installation. While sun control remains the building may assume any shape, and for large libraries more economical and manageable shapes, not to mention control of temperature, humidity, desiccation, and insect life, become possible. If only partial air conditioning is possible the librarian tends to favor his stock rather than his readers. The new Raffles National Library at Singapore has a windowless, air conditioned stack; similarly, Mexico University's famous conditioned stack tower has blank walls unbroken except for tiny stair windows. The librarian of the University of Rangoon reports that only air conditioning is able to maintain books in his stack in good condition. In designing a building, air conditioning must be seriously considered for it is not easy or economical to install it later in a building not planned for it.

If a library is carelessly designed and of materials which weather and wear badly it will deteriorate quickly in the tropics, where there is sometimes a general attitude of indifference towards maintenance of buildings and little money for restoration. With an eye on maintenance costs it is worth putting up a durable building at the start. It is interesting, therefore, to note that use has been made of durable local materials which can be left in an untreated or cheaply-treated state. Villaneuva has used exposed concrete on the facade of the University of Caracas library. The infill walls of the University College of the West Indies library are of exposed concrete compounded of white stone which it was unnecessary to paint. The bald concrete structures of Le Corbusier in northern India are obviously logical answers to the problems of an unrelenting climate. Dressed and random rubble stone have been used for walls, particularly as splash walls in red soil regions; terrazzo has been used for walls, stairs, and floors; stone-cement aggregate slabs and mosaics have been used for walls and fascias; flagstone and tiles for floors; asbestos-cement and concrete, in shell construction, have been used for roofs. Screenwork, with its horizontal surfaces, is liable to spoil and the library of Makerere College has used glazed ceramic unit tiles.

Openness and flexibility, as far as tropical conditions and funds have allowed, are characteristic of the new libraries. The modular conception of a building of Angus Snead Macdonald has not always been fully realized. For economy reasons beam spans have sometimes been small; many libraries are narrow one-room width buildings; others are too small to allow large open spaces between essential fixtures, for

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gross ventilation, or they are broken up by courtyards. Local fire regulations sometimes forbid large areas uninterrupted by masonry walls.

Plans in general, however, show new libraries to be of modular or grid construction, with reinforced concrete columns and floors, external infill panel walls, and a minimum of internal masonry obstructions. Module sizes vary a good deal from the 22½ feet and 27 feet recommended by Macdonald. They are usually smaller, although the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland has a 22½ foot module. In libraries one module wide, like those of the Ghana Library Board, the narrowness of the module, as represented by pillars in the external walls, is not discernible since the entire interior space is free. Ashanti Regional Library in Kumasi has a grid 8 feet by 24 feet. The new Raffles Library in Singapore has three grid sizes, 23 feet by 23 feet and 22½ feet by 15 feet for non-air-conditioned areas, and 11½ feet by 19½ feet for the air-conditioned stack tower. These buildings appear to be capable of extension and adaption—so necessary in countries where library buildings are built piecemeal—and the University College library at Ibadan, encased as it is with easily removable concrete grille panels, also seems to be extendable at any point.

Most public and college libraries have open access stacks, and are small enough to merge or bring reading and stack areas closely together. The stack capacities of the university college libraries established in British dependent territories do not, for the most part, exceed 250,000 volumes. At Ibadan there is a very flexible arrangement of open stacks and reading areas running alongside each other on each story. This is also the arrangement in the University College of the West Indies although a recent stack extension provides mainly core stacking with some perimeter reading. The university colleges of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, and Ghana, have favored more formal reading rooms with separate but adjacent stacks. The University of Malaya has a formal reading room, with open stacks at each end and a mezzanine gallery. Makerere College has small reading areas enclosed by open stacks and individual tables around the perimeter with open stacks adjacent.

The university and university college libraries of the West Indies, Malaya, Ghana, and Rhodesia have mezzanines, those in the last two being primarily for stacks. There is an excellent mezzanine gallery also in the library of the Inter-American Housing Centre in Bogotá. There is, indeed, much to recommend mezzanines, particularly in regions without air conditioning and where ceilings have to be high

in any case. By increasing the compactness of book and reader accommodation, to which they are particularly suited, since neither book stacks nor small area usages require high ceilings or thick floors, they do affect over-all savings. Macdonald estimated that if carried on structural columns spaced about nine feet apart in both directions they could be of flat concrete slab only 4 to 4½ inches thick. They are certainly attractive opposite high ceiling areas, they break the monotony inherent in repetitive modular construction and by affording wide interior views increase the atmosphere of spaciousness, which adds to comfort in relatively small buildings in some warm climates.

Open air reading is encouraged in some libraries. The Raffles National Library will place newspapers and popular periodicals in a room with two sliding screen walls which can be opened in fine weather and closed during the windy, wet monsoon period.

Hard floors of flagstone, tile, cement screed, terrazzo, concrete with granolithic finish, and wood, seem to be used more frequently than imported soft flooring like cork, vinyl, rubber and linoleum, probably for financial reasons, ease of cleaning, insect resistance, and because contractors are more skilled in laying them. Reports on noise suggest that tropical peoples tend to tread silently and that they have an addiction to rubber soles, so that noise is less than might be expected. One objection has been made to such floors which is that they can be cold if readers are barefooted. There is no doubt that cork, if it can be afforded, is the material most acoustically effective, as is being experienced in Makerere College library and its new medical branch library. Smooth concrete structures in the tropics transmit noise easily and if there must be a choice of acoustical treatment it is more important and cheaper to treat ceilings than floors. In Kenya excellent decorative acoustical tiles made locally from sisal are now available. The Ghana Library Board libraries have hard floors and soft ceilings of wood-wool slabs.

Lighting practice varies but generally there seems to be overhead lighting, sometimes fluorescent, sometimes incandescent, sometimes both. A point for consideration is that fluorescent generates less heat than incandescent lighting.

It is traditional in many tropical countries to enliven plain surfaces with decoration and it is gratifying to find examples on library buildings. The obvious one is Juan O'Gorman's central library at the University of Mexico, the central stack tower of which, decorated with a rough mosaic of natural minerals, has been described as the most

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successful example of large scale use of figural decoration in modern architecture. There are stained glass windows by Fernand Léger in Villanueva's library for the University of Caracas. Wallpaper, which is cheap and can be used with insect-resistant adhesives, has been tried with effect at Makerere College.

Service arrangements are generally in line with Western library planning. They vary from small open access public library branches of 1,000 square feet to Singapore's large Raffles National Library of 102,000 square feet, with partly open and partly closed access, children's and adult lending libraries, reference and commercial libraries, mobile library quarters, rooms for illustrations, Braille, projection, archives, and a lecture hall. There is little that is peculiarly tropical—not even the fumigation chamber. It may be that provision of reading space in public libraries should be more generous when many of the readers do not have rooms at home for private study.

On the whole, the libraries built recently are dignified rather than monumental. The designs reveal an international outlook, with regional influences secondary. They give an impression of professional efficiency and in their countries they stand as symbols of a new era.

Some Postwar Libraries in the Tropics

University of Caracas, Venezuela.

University of Mexico.

University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras.

Medellin Public Library, Colombia.

Jamaica Library Service: Headquarters library and parish libraries.

University College of the West Indies, Jamaica.

University of Rangoon.

Raffles National Library, Singapore.

University of Malaya, Singapore.

University of Ceylon, Peradeniya.

University College of Ghana.

University College, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Ghana Library Board: Accra Central Library and regional branches.

Eastern Regional Library, Enugu, Nigeria.

South African Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, Pretoria.

University of Dakar, French West Africa.

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Preservation of Library Materials in Tropical Countries

WILFRED J. PLUMBE

BOOKWORMS, TERMITES, AND COCKROACHES, without doubt, ate many literary masterpieces of ancient Greece and Rome so that copies of certain works known to have existed have not come down to us. Classical writers were aware of the menace of insects. Insect pests of "books"—i.e. papyrus or animal skin rolls—were mentioned by Aristotle, Antophanes, Ansonius, Lucilius, Martial, Ovid, Philippus of Thessalonica, Pliny the Elder, Symphosius, and Isidorus Hispalensis. In his *Historia animalium*, written in 335 B.C., Aristotle mentions that he had found in books a creature resembling a tailless scorpion and "also other animalcules . . . resembling the grubs found in garments." (This "tailless scorpion" has been identified as the arachnid, *Chelifer cancroides*.) Horace refers to the practice of smearing books with cedar oil and storing them in chests of polished cypress. Pliny the Elder records that books found in the grave of Numa Pompilius, where they had lain for five hundred years, were in excellent condition due to the preservative effect of cedar oil.¹

Cedar oil was, in fact, a famous book preservative for more than 3,000 years. Besides being mentioned by Horace and Pliny the Elder, it was referred to by Acron, Ausonius, Marcellus Empiricus, Martial, Martianus Capella, Ovid, Persius Flaccus, Servius the grammarian, and Vitruvius Pollio. In the Apocryphal books of the Bible it is recorded that Moses gave instructions for preservation of the books of the Pentateuch by anointing them with cedar oil and storing them in earthen vessels.²

Most of the early destruction of skin and papyrus rolls by insects took place in Mediterranean and sub-tropical climates. But insects have been no less a nuisance in temperate climates. Erasmus wrote that books, in order to be saved from worms, must be used. In the

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seventeenth century, Robert Hooke, the English chemist and physicist, referred to silverfish as "one of the teeth of time." E. G. Peignot, French bibliographer, in his *Insectes qui rongent les livres*, published in 1802, records that he once found "twenty-seven volumes in a row pierced by a bookworm in one continuous devastating journey."

When greater movement of people and books began to take place in the world, from the Middle Ages onwards, the danger and damage spread from country to country. The monastic libraries of Constantinople, Greece, and Britain, were ravaged by bookworms. A thirteenth-century manuscript exists entitled *Remedium contra vermes librorum*. Today the situation—as C. M. E. Towne puts it in his *Autobiography of Master Bookworm*—is that a bookworm born in a copy of the *Anthology of Caphalus* in the Abbey of Malmesbury may, later, live in a first edition of Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary* at Michigan State University. In tropical countries the danger of damage to books by termites, cockroaches, silverfish, moths, coleopterous borers, and other insects, always exists. To the librarian there is no sound more sinister than that of beetle larvae, suddenly discovered, audibly eating books and wooden bookshelves.

If cedar oil was the first preservative employed by scholars and librarians, it was by no means the only substance employed by them. The following are some of the other materials and substances—applied in various ways—which have been regarded, during the last four centuries, as effective protectors of books and book shelves:—absinthe; alum; alum and thymol; alum and vitriol; oil of anis; bitter apple; beeswax; benzine; Bertin's oil varnish; white birch bark; bitumen; borax; buck-bean; cajuput oil; camphor balls and camphor cakes; camphor wood; centaury; bitter chestnuts; dried meal of wild chestnuts; red chillies; chloropicrin; cinchona; cinnamon; cloves; clove oil; colocynth; copal varnish; copper; creosote; Derris elliptica; oil of eucalyptus; fir wood treated with lime or oil; formalin; burning of moistened gun-powder; halowax and lanolin; kerosene; khus-khus; lac varnish; lavender; leaves of margosa tree placed between the pages of books; mercurial salve; mercuric chloride; oil of mirbane; musk; red myrrh; dishes of naphthalene placed on bookshelves; neat's-foot oil; dried neem leaves; nicotine; powder of orrisroot; ozone; paraffin wax; oil of pennyroyal; black pepper; petroleum; phenic acid; plaster of paris; porpoise oil; pyrethrum powder; quassia; shavings of Russia leather; sandalwood; oil of sassafras; shellac; snuff; thymol; tobacco smoke; powdered tobacco mixed with powdered leaves of wormwood;

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light-traps for moths; mechanical traps for cockroaches; turpentine; vermouth; and sprouts of wormwood.

Some of these preservatives are still in use. In India, for instance, the insides of all bookcases in one library have been coated with paraffin wax as a protection against termites. The efficacy of paraffin wax was discovered comparatively recently by F. H. Gravely, who reports:

My first knowledge of it came from sleeping on the ground when camping in a Madras compound which proved to be riddled with termite runs. Several of us used water-proof groundsheets that we had prepared from unbleached calico by sprinkling grated paraffin wax over it and then running this into the fibre by passing a very hot iron very slowly over it. In the morning the undersides of these groundsheets were found to be covered with termite mud, but to be unharmed and have served as a complete protection to everything upon them, whereas all campers without them had had their blankets and some even their pajamas badly eaten, some of the blankets having been reduced to rags.³

Camphor balls and naphthalene are used in several other Eastern libraries, and mercuric chloride and cockroach traps (especially "roach hives") are still employed in many libraries throughout the tropics. Generally speaking, however, all these earlier preservatives, many of which were never really effective, have now been superseded. (Any library committee or governing body, these days, aware that its staff were burning moistened gunpowder in the library basement, would suspect a twentieth century recurrence of the Gunpowder Plot.) Even in Buddhist countries where, strictly speaking, it is sinful to slay a ravening bookworm outright, modern chemical compounds such as pentachlorophenol, methyl bromide, and dieldrin are now taking the place of sandalwood, cajuput oil, and margosa leaves.

For the librarian faced with the necessity of protecting his library from the jaws of many thousands of species of insects, it is necessary to know which is the best type of chemical warfare to wage. He must become, first, an entomologist so that he may gain appreciation of the life habits and food preferences of his insect enemies; and then a chemist, so that he may understand the properties, and possibly the dangers, of the poisons with which he hopes to kill them. There is always the sinister possibility that he will become so fascinated by interesting insects like termites and mason hornets, and such beautiful insects as silverfish, that he will decide they should be encouraged rather than exterminated.

Termites are often called "white ants" but they are not ants and they are not white. There are known to be 1,861 species of them; they have been on the earth for two hundred million years, as compared with man's one million years; Africa is their headquarters but they exist in all warm countries. S. H. Skaife says of them in his book, *Dwellers in Darkness*, that, with so much history behind them, they "have evolved a grimly efficient organization in which the individual has no rights at all and everything is run for the good of the community . . . Like all social insects, they are ruthless totalitarians." Ninety-five per cent are workers, members of the termite proletariat; five per cent are soldiers, permanently in the army; and a statistically insignificant number are queens and kings and "supplementary reproductives" whose responsibilities are much greater than their privileges. Certain species maintain fungus gardens in their termitaries; some keep and feed pets; the queens of certain species lay 30,000 eggs a day; a termitary may have a population of over a million individuals (c.f. the human cities of Alexandria, Caracas, Delhi, Ibadan, Istanbul, Johannesburg, Manila, Singapore), all derived from a single royal pair.

The food of termites includes grass, humus, dried plants, timber, woodwork of buildings, other termites, library books, files, photographs, valuable pictures, and catalog cards. If they invade a library in force they can do irreparable damage in a single night.

There are two categories of them. Earth-dwelling termites live in the soil or maintain contact with it by means of long winding tunnels; their presence in a library is generally disclosed by their mud tunnels on walls, bookcases, and furniture, or by the exploratory earthen towers they extrude between floor tiles and from cracks in concrete floors. Earth-dwelling termites create immense havoc in every country in which they exist; they may be debited, in fact, with 95 per cent of all damage to buildings and books that has been caused by *termitidae*.

In the West Indies wood-dwelling or dry-wood termites, which live above the ground and come into buildings through cracks and openings, have also caused serious damage, and it is said that certain species of them have now entered Africa through the sea ports and are eating their way into the interior. They have also been reported as abundant in the Philippine Islands and Hawaii. Their presence in window-sills, door jambs, etc. may be detected by their excreta, like

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poppy seeds in appearance, which they push out from their hidden tunnels onto the floor.

Henry Smeathman in a *Philosophical Transactions* paper published in 1781 mentions serious termite damage to books in Africa; and Alexander von Humboldt in his *Essai politique sur le royaume de la Nouvelle-Espagne* in 1811 points out that their ravages account for the rarity of old books in equatorial America.

Cockroaches are said to have appeared in the Silurian age long before even the stegosaurus, the diplodocus, and the pterodactyl, but whereas these other horrors came to an end eons ago the cockroach has persisted and multiplied so that all librarians and housewives in warm countries must be familiar with it. The present writer has written elsewhere:

Cockroaches are useful only to zoology students who use them as material for exercises in dissection. There are 1,2000 species, the majority of which occur in the tropics. In addition to the damage they do to book covers cockroaches are suspected of spreading leprosy, poliomyelitis, cholera, typhoid fever and dysentery; so quite apart from any question of book preservation they are very undesirable in libraries. Their favourite food (or drink) is said to be beer but they will tackle anything from whitewash to boots. In libraries they have to be content, for the most part, with books. They are attracted by the adhesive used to stick cloth or buckram to the binding board, by the starch stiffening added to some binding cloths, by other pastes and glues employed in binding, and by certain dyes. As scavengers they enter buildings to eat organic filth of all kinds, other dead insects, and food crumbs left in rest-rooms by library staff. Their flattened bodies allow them to hide by day behind skirting boards, beneath floors, and in crannies and dark corners of all kinds. They generally enter libraries via latrines or drainpipes or by way of basements, in which they proliferate, but male cockroaches may also fly in through unscreened windows. As soon as it is dark both sexes and their families emerge from their hiding-places, find their way to books and start gnawing and sucking the book covers.⁴

Of the 1,200 known species, four have become cosmopolitan and, of these, three are commonly encountered in libraries:

The American cockroach, *Periplaneta americana*, is the species thought to spread poliomyelitis. It is darkbrown in color; both male and female are winged; although supposed to reach a length of only 1¼" specimens nourished on the contents of Singapore (and perhaps

other) drains achieve a size beyond that permitted by entomology textbooks.

The Oriental or Common cockroach, *Blatta orientalis*, is also dark brown; its permitted size is $\frac{3}{4}$ "; the female is wingless but the male has short wings.

The German cockroach, *Blatella germanica*, called Croton-bug in America, is smaller still, about $\frac{1}{2}$ " long; it may be distinguished by two dark stripes on the thorax; both male and female are winged. In spite of its name it is thought to have originated in Asia. Both it and the Oriental cockroach may be recognized by the oötheca, or capsule containing eggs, often seen protruding from the abdomen of the female.

The fourth cosmopolitan cockroach, *Periplaneta australasiae*, 1" long, is mainly a vegetarian and therefore not often encountered in libraries.

Cockroaches were specifically mentioned as enemies of books by Ulysses Aldrovandus in 1602. They were regarded as a pest in the Bahamas Islands in 1754, and as a scourge in China a hundred years later; in 1837 they were so abundant and ferocious in the West Indies that they attacked not only books but also the extremities of the sick and the dead.

In addition to gnawing books they emit a dark ink-line liquid which defaces the pages of books and anything else across which they scuttle.

The silverfish, *Lepisma saccharina*, has received many names: silver-moth, sugar-louse, sugar-fish, fish-moth, and slicker, are some of them. Occasionally it has been confused with the bookworm. The English poet, Thomas Parnell, for instance, in his poem "The Book-worm," described what was unmistakably a silverfish:

Dreadful his head with clustering eyes,
With horns without, and tusks within,
And scales to serve him for a skin.
Observe him nearly, lest he climb
To wound the bards of ancient time,
Or down the vale of fancy go
To tear some modern wretch below . . .
Insatiate brute, whose teeth abuse
The sweetest servants of the Muse . . .

Entomology was evidently not Parnell's strong subject since in addition to misnaming the subject of his inspiration he was uncertain if the damage it did was executed with "tusks" or "teeth." There is no

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doubt, however, that this small glistening silvery grey creature with its two antennae, spike-like tail, and two terminal filaments, does achieve considerable damage in libraries. Silverfish feed on starch, the sizing in paper, and on glue. To get at glue they damage the binding of books, especially when they are of leather, ordinary cloth or rayon fabric; they eat gum from postage stamps, envelope flaps, and date labels; they gnaw holes in papers, prints, photographs, catalog cards, and cardboard boxes. Although most active at night, they may be encountered at their work of destruction during the day in dark places such as drawers of desks.

Firebrats, *Thermobia domestica*, are very similar to silverfish in appearance but they thrive best in bakehouses, kitchens, and furnace rooms, where the temperature is about 100° F. Few libraries, even in the tropics, experience indoor temperatures as high as this, and firebrats, therefore, are only rarely encountered in libraries.

Psocids, or book lice, are small grey or pale yellow insects with soft bodies and jaws well developed for the purpose of chewing. They may sometimes be found among elderly little-used volumes that have become damp, and it is alleged that they injure the bindings of such books by eating the paste or glue. It seems more likely that they feed on the micro-fungi which form under damp conditions of storage and, consequently, that they may be exonerated from the charge of bibliophagy.

In an article which appeared in the *New York Times Book Review* in January 1933, it was claimed by P. Brooks that "the ordinary ravages of time, through climatic conditions, wind and weather, fire and flood, have been mild as compared with the damage created by the lowly worm." This "worm" is actually the larva of a beetle, or rather the larvae of one hundred and sixty species of beetles. The most notorious are the following:

Sitodrepa paniceum, the drugstore beetle. This species is cosmopolitan; it is said by Brooks to be "capable of eating arsenic and lead—in fact, anything except cast iron;" and each female of the species may produce more than 800,000 descendants in a single successful year of egg-laying. It was this pest which invaded the Huntington Library in the early 1930's.

Lyctus brunneus Ptinus fur, the powder-post beetle. The larvae of these bore long cylindrical holes in books and book shelves. *Ptinus fur* is the widely known spider beetle first mentioned by Linnaeus in 1766.

Anobium punctatum, the common furniture beetle. The larvae pack their holes with flour-like frass so that nothing substantial remains of the shelf or door jamb they are eating.

Catorama mexicana, the Mexican book beetle. This is abundant in Hawaii and a related species has caused great damage in libraries in Brazil.

Dermestes lardarium, the larder beetle. A glutton for cheese, hams, etc., this species is also guilty, when nothing more appetizing is available, of devouring the leather bindings of books.

Rhizopertha dominica. This has injured bindings in the library of the School of Tropical Medicine, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Most of these bookworms are small dark brown or reddish-brown beetles. They fly into libraries through open or unscreened windows or crawl in below ill-fitting doors. The larvae will destroy anything from the Library of Congress printed catalog to a fragile palm-leaf manuscript.

Robert Burns, who was a better entomologist than Parnell, wrote of bookworms, when visiting a nobleman's library:

Through and through the inspired leaves,
Ye maggots, make your windings;
But, oh! respect his lordship's taste,
And spare his golden bindings.

But it requires more than poetry to stop a bookworm.

The Brown House, or False Clothes, moth, *Hofmannophila pseudospretella*, occurs in North America, across northern Europe and Asia from France to Eastern Siberia, and in Ceylon, India, Australia, and New Zealand. Its appetite and digestive ability allow it to devour such varied delicacies as corks in wine bottles, poppy capsules, and bales of rabbit hair; in libraries it injures cloth and calf leather bindings but leaves books bound in morocco leather untouched.

The mosquito-wire mesh that has to be provided over windows, vents, and grilles, in order to exclude insects from tropical libraries, seems to provide what the mud wasp—known in the Sudan, Kenya, and other parts of Africa as “mason hornet” and in Trinidad as “potter wasp”—regards as the ideal foundation upon which to build its nest of hard mud. If allowed access to a library the mud wasp will cement its nest to the rear edges of books as they stand on the shelves, to the corners of bookcases and to map and manuscript rolls. In spite of its fearsome appearance and its disconcerting interests in human earholes

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it does not attack either library staff or books, but its mud has strong adhesive qualities and cannot be tolerated. (The blade of an assegai is the ideal tool with which to scrape nests of mud wasps from walls, window frames, and mosquito-wire.)

Most libraries in newly developing countries attract at least some of these hungry hordes of insects or have to contend with others the depredations of which are local and less spectacular. At the end of the last century the Institute of Jamaica in Kingston gained valuable experience in countering the attacks of bookworms and cockroaches. This was followed by experiments in insect control in Barbados and Hawaii. In 1910-19 research was conducted in British Guiana, Fiji, India, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico; in 1920-29 Trinidad was also concerned; and in the decade after 1930 Bermuda, Cuba, and Malaya were actively involved. In every territory in the tropics librarians have had to take steps to protect books from insects.

Much research carried out in temperate and technologically developed countries has been applied in less advanced areas. In particular, important work has been carried out by the Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. In 1929-33, also in the United States, under the auspices of a committee of the National Research Council, intensive studies, in which insects received their share of attention, were made concerning preservation of records; and in 1937 the National Bureau of Standards published a revised edition of the report by A. E. Kimberley and B. W. Scribner, which has proved so valuable not only inside the United States but also in several tropical countries.⁵

The second world war gave impetus and urgency to research, mainly by governments and manufacturing firms, into more effective ways of insect-proofing textiles, leather, cardboard cartons, and wrapping papers. In England, the Printing, Packaging and Allied Trades Research Association did valuable work; as also, in Italy, did the Instituto di Patologio del Libro.

Perhaps the major battle, fought out on more, and stranger, fronts than have existed in any war of man against man, has been against termites. To combat subterranean termites, poisoning of the soil under libraries and around the walls of buildings, has been carried out in many countries. Solutions containing trichlorobenzene, pentachlorophenol, and sodium arsenite, have proved effective; recently there seems to be a tendency for these to yield place to dieldrin. In West Africa the manufacturers of dieldrin recommend that building

sites should be treated with a diluted emulsion consisting of one gallon 20 per cent Emulsion Concentrate to 80-100 gallons of water, which should be applied to foundations at the rate of one gallon to every two feet of open trench or sprayed, one gallon to five square feet of surface area, before floors are laid. If buildings have already been erected without termite proofing, the emulsion may be applied in narrow trenches on the outside (and inside, if possible) of walls, and flooded through holes in floors. It may be sprayed on walls and woodwork, half a pint of dieldrin 20 per cent Emulsion Concentrate diluted with one gallon of water, to the point of run-off.

A recent example of a termite invasion is that which occurred in 1957 in the library of the Institute for Medical Research, Kuala Lumpur, Malaya. There the Public Works Department removed parquet flooring, bored holes two feet deep at five feet intervals both outside and inside the library walls, and poured three gallons of dieldrex emulsion into each of over ninety holes.

It has been found that earth-dwelling termites may readily be killed, also, by introducing Gammexane smoke or DDT, under pressure, into their tunnels. Termites have the habit of licking each other and then, if the licking is too vigorous, as sometimes happens, and the termite being groomed suffers an injury, it is at once killed and eaten by other termites. This means that when one termite dies of poisoning, whether from Gammexane smoke, Gammexane dust, DDT, or perhaps through picking up white arsenic or Paris green, and promptly becomes a meal for its friends, the process of poison and hygienic cannibalism continues throughout the termitary as long as the poison remains lethal.

Wood-dwelling termites, when already in buildings, have been eradicated by submitting the buildings concerned to thorough fumigation with hydrocyanic gas or methyl bromide. Professional fumigators are essential if these highly dangerous gases are employed.

If the use made of cedar oil more than three thousand years ago in the Mediterranean countries may be discounted, the practice of varnishing books in order to preserve them seems to have originated in China. A mixture of five drams of mercuric chloride, 60 drops of creosote, and 2 pounds of alcohol, was already in use in Swatow in 1887.

By 1900, mercuric chloride, with other less lethal ingredients, was being used also in the West Indies and Australia. Since then its use has become worldwide.

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In Puerto Rico, before the first world war, a varnish consisting of 1 liter of wood alcohol, 30 grams of carbolic acid, and 15 grams of mercuric chloride, applied once every six months, was found successful in preventing damage by cockroaches.

In Fiji, in 1930, a solution comprising 1 ounce of mercuric chloride and 1½ ounces of carbolic acid in a quart of methylated spirits containing pyridine, was employed. In this instance the lids of the books were varnished afterwards with shellac.

About the same time, the Department of Agriculture in Ceylon was adding ammonium arsenite to 1 ounce of mercuric chloride in a pint of rectified spirits. The efficacy of the ammonium arsenite was said to be increased by addition of beechwood creosote.

In Cuba, in the early 1930's, 20 grams of mercuric chloride and 25 cc. carbolic acid, in 1,000 cc. methylated spirits, with gum shellac added to make the liquid slightly adhesive, was found to be satisfactory, although it was necessary to varnish with it twice a year.

During the 1930's, also, the library of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, Trinidad, which was a pioneer library in preservation of books against insects, used a mixture of 5 grams of mercuric chloride and 60 drops of creosote in 600 cc. of strong white Barbados rum, the rum being used because it was cheaper than alcohol. At the present time this library uses a slightly different formula: 16.7 grams of mercuric chloride and 10 cc. of creosote, made up to 2,000 cc. with alcohol.

In Singapore, the University of Malaya Library uses a very successful solution made up of 1 ounce 146 grams of mercuric chloride, 2 pounds 10 ounces 292 grams of shellac, 10 ounces 292 grams of resin, and 10 fluid ounces of creosote, in 4 gallons of methylated spirits. This leaves a slight stain on end-papers but its effectiveness lasts for years.

In Ghana, at the University College near Accra, a solution of 1.6 ounces of mercuric chloride and 0.5 per cent (volume to volume) of beechwood creosote in one gallon of methylated spirits, is used.

At University College library, Ibadan, Nigeria, the mixture is 5 ounces of mercuric chloride and 5 ounces of phenol in 2 gallons of illicitly distilled gin, the last being captured and supplied by Ibadan police. (The librarian points out that the gin may "possess some virtue not yet recognized by science.")

The University of Natal, Union of South Africa, employs a substance known as "Bourne Plastic" which is manufactured in Johannes-

burg and sold as a finish for floors and furniture. If twice the amount of "thinners" recommended by the manufacturers is added it is very suitable as a book varnish giving protection against cockroaches. The formula has not been disclosed.

All these varnishes are generally applied to books with a paint brush or feather, which is drawn carefully along "the inside edges of the front and back covers, down the section joints, in the hollow between the spine of the book and the binding and on the top, bottom and fore edges," as described by the librarian of the University College of Ghana. Sometimes the entire lids and spine of the book are coated with varnish, but in every instance care has to be taken to avoid gilt lettering.

In the last few years employment of a lacquer with urea-formaldehyde as a vehicle for dieldrin or aldrin has been tried out with some success. "Insecta-Lac," containing dieldrin, has been successfully employed in the West Indies, Zanzibar, and the library of the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, Zaria, Nigeria. The manufacturers of dieldrin are cautious in their claims for it, but there is no doubt that it can rid libraries of all creeping and running insects such as cockroaches, silverfish, and perhaps bookworms, if applied to the bookshelves, library furniture and fittings, instead of to the books. There is a likelihood, in fact, that it will not be necessary to varnish books in reference libraries in the future. It will suffice to varnish the book shelves, window sills, doorways, and any cracks, crevices and corners where insects of crawling habits may be expected to hide. Books lent for home reading will still need to be protected by varnish, as they will be exposed to danger immediately when they are taken from library premises. In the tropics interlibrary loan schemes must, inevitably, be affected by the dangers to which books are exposed when in transit.

One recent development: earlier this year it was announced that the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (C.N.R.S.), in Paris, has available for sale a new wax—wax 212—which may be applied to bookbindings as an insecticide and fungicide and which may be preferable to any kind of book varnish. Six colors are available and samples may be obtained from the restoration workshops of the Bibliothèque Nationale, 58 Rue de Richelieu, Paris—2e.⁶

Many libraries in regions where damage to books by insects is an ever present possibility have constructed special fumigation chambers. For many years the Institute of Jamaica used a gas-tight box

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in which affected volumes were treated with carbon disulphide. The Insular Library at San Juan, Puerto Rico, used a specially built gas-tight cupboard in the library basement. The Bibliotheca Bogoriensis, in Java, Indonesia, has a strongly constructed "gas chamber" built separately from the library: its interior is shelved; books are placed on the shelves with their pages fanned out, and exposed to methyl bromide, which is blown about inside the chamber by an electric fan turned on from outside after the heavy iron door has been closed. The new Raffles National Library in Singapore is also to have a special fumigation chamber.

It has been on record for more than seven hundred years that micro-fungi have a deleterious effect on paper. In 1221 Frederick II, Holy Roman Emperor, decreed that all acts recorded on cotton paper were invalid and, within a term of two years, must be transcribed on parchment. The reason given for this ruling was that the paper of that time was of poor quality and suffered from the attacks of moisture and insects.

There have been many efforts to discover how fungi can be prevented from growing on book covers. It is mainly in the present century, however, during which so many notable libraries have been established in tropical climates, that the problem has become acute.

In the last two decades damage has been reported from Bangkok, Bogor, Djakarta, Freetown, Havana, Ibadan, Kingston, Kuching, Lagos, Manila, Mombasa, Panama City, Port-au-Prince, Port-of-Spain, Rangoon, Saigon, and Singapore. Throughout the humid tropics any library where the relative humidity is higher than 75 per cent and the air temperature between 65° F. and 85° F., must expect moulds to grow on many of its books. The optimal temperature for growth of the majority of fungi, according to *British standard 1133, section 5* of 1951, is about 77° F., and L. D. Galloway and R. Burgess in their *Applied Mycology and Bacteriology* mention a relative humidity range of 85-95 per cent as conducive to growth although they point out that certain mould fungi are capable of slow growth at 75 per cent relative humidity.⁷

Fungi grow more readily upon certain book covers than upon others. A chrome-tanned leather is said to be highly resistant to moulds. A smooth finish is less conducive to growth of mould than a rough or "tacky" surface, probably because it does not retain dust, in which mould is always likely to grow.

Librarians have tried to prevent the growth of mould in several

different ways: by the air conditioning of libraries; by constant manual dusting of books and provision of fans to insure constant movement of air; by the application to book covers of various lacquers, such as those containing shellac, phenol, paranitrophenol, and urea-formaldehyde; by fumigation with formaldehyde gas, methyl bromide, or thymol vapor; by shelving books in lockable glass-fronted bookcases with an electric bulb left burning inside to dry the air (this is still done in libraries in Singapore and New Delhi); and by general diffusion of naphthalene vapor or thymol. A formula for book lacquer which is said to give complete protection from mildew (and cockroaches) in the University of Florida library, is as follows:⁸

Ethyl cellulose (Type N—7)	10 ozs.
Shirlan Extra	½ oz.
Xylol	3½ quarts
Butanol	6 ozs.

Several chemical compounds, such as phenyl mercuric nitrate ("merfenil"), pentachlorophenol, betanaphthol, and paranitrophenol, are known to protect leather; Shirlan, the wartime discovery, protects cotton cloth; and, according to Galloway and Burgess, "minute traces of acetaldehyde or of ammonia in the storage atmosphere completely inhibit fungal growth."⁹ It would seem, therefore, that periodic air disinfection of libraries by means of aerosol antiseptics is a field of research that may yield valuable results in the future.

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The Provision of Vernacular Literature

STANLEY MILBURN

SINCE THE ESTABLISHMENT of the United Nations on October 24, 1945, the improvement of economic and social conditions in all member states has gradually become a matter of worldwide concern. Part of the preamble to the Charter reads: "We, the peoples of the United Nations, determined . . . to reaffirm faith in the dignity and worth of the human person . . . to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom and for these ends . . . to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples." The Economic and Social Council, supported by the Specialized Agencies, devoted itself to the solution of the problems involved in this program. The Charter of Unesco expressed the belief of those nations which established it in "full and equal opportunities for education for all" and "free exchange of ideas and knowledge." Unesco will further popular education and the spread of culture while refraining from interference with "the independence, integrity and fruitful diversity of the cultures and educational systems of the States Members of the Organization."

The place of literacy in a program of general development, to which the United Nations was thus committed, had always been difficult to define. The British government, in view of its special responsibilities to its dependent territories, had set up within the Colonial Office, in 1925, an Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies. Through a series of White Papers and Reports attention had constantly been directed to the dangers of a failure to provide for the simultaneous development of all sides of the life of a community. This was especially explicit in the White Paper (Colonial 186) of 1943, *Mass Education in African Society*, which stressed the importance of adult education. The accelerating pace of social change, often caused by events in some distant country, made it clear that

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"the citizen has much to learn which can only be learnt in the years of maturity." The dominant note of the report was "the need for intelligent co-operation of the whole people at all levels and the unique value of literacy as a means to this end."¹ As J. L. McGairl, a social welfare officer in Tanganyika, put it: "Becoming literate is a spiritual experience. . . . People are uplifted by it and are made aware of their power to alter their environment by individual and group action."²

The importance of literacy vis-à-vis other campaigns for economic or social betterment in securing an initial movement of the people towards community development has often been misjudged. It is not literacy alone but the circumstances in which literacy is offered which provide the clue to success. Perhaps the best summary of the position is that given by the director of the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Joint Publications Bureau. He points out:

In all social development schemes the support of popular understanding and enthusiasm and the willing co-operation of the rising African intelligentsia is necessary. To this end financial provision for various economic schemes is not enough, political representation is not enough; for the building up of an actively free civilized community something more is required, and an important contribution to that something more consists in the interaction between advanced and advancing minds by way of literature.³

Some of the essential conditions for this interaction to be effective are discussed by R. F. Storch in an article on "Writing in Ghana." Storch deplores the lack of journals for literary experiment, regards "the untutored Muse" as a myth and explains that creative faculties require freely circulating ideas especially on the culture and destiny of Ghana. He thinks that, although a poet or writer cannot go back to the simpler forms of tribal life, a university course in literature would be of great help if it provided comparative literary studies relating, for instance, Akan dirges to Homeric lays.⁴

It is now generally recognized that neither literacy campaigns nor the provision of vernacular literature can be treated as isolated enterprises if they are to repay the very considerable expenditure of money and effort that is entailed. As ends in themselves they may not prove effective. Unesco estimates that in 1950 there were about 700,000,000 adult illiterates in the world, i.e. 46 per cent of the world's adult population.⁵ The major areas of illiteracy are all situated in Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and South America. Illiteracy is taken

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to mean inability to read and write in any language, but if the situation were assessed in terms of "functional literacy"—i.e. the level reached by any child who has had four years of schooling—then about 70 per cent must be counted as "illiterate." Evidence clearly points to the supreme importance of extending universal primary education as the basic approach towards the elimination of illiteracy. This must be carried out in the vernacular and the number of school places must keep pace with the increasing population. Since the provision of an educational system is expensive, it is interesting to note that "the diffusion of literacy skills within a country is both a consequence of and a requirement for industrial development." The Unesco study ends:

Finally, as part of the planning, and certainly the follow-up, of literacy campaigns it is imperative that attention be given to the preparation of reading materials for the newly-literate adults. The question of relapse into illiteracy for want of practice in reading can be documented both statistically and otherwise. But the best way to prevent such relapse would be to ensure that an adult, once taught how to read and write, will have suitable means of practising these arts before they are lost again through disuse.

As will be seen later, fragmentation—linguistically, socially, and geographically—is a major difficulty in conducting literacy campaigns and even more so in providing a flow of reading materials. By contrast, the monolithic mass of Russia and the Soviet Republics after 1917, although ravaged by war and revolution, was able to abolish illiteracy in about twenty years. This success was due to an integrated combination of economic and social measures with educational reforms, largely facilitated by state monopoly both of economic and cultural life. By 1940 school grammars had been compiled for all the nationalities of the U.S.S.R. Dozens of peoples have created a literary language of their own in which thousands of books have been written.⁶ The process was helped by the literacy committees which were attached to the Soviets in towns, town districts, and villages. With the aid of club and library facilities, these committees arranged for readings of fiction for adult pupils, lectures and talks on political and labor subjects or on sanitation and hygiene problems, arranged excursions to museums, exhibitions, and so forth, established itinerant libraries, and insured that the booksellers always had an adequate supply of textbooks, exercise books, writing materials, etc.⁷ Children's books were soon seen to be unsuitable for teaching

adults to read and primers designed for people of different occupations were quickly published in large editions—primers for workers, peasants, railwaymen, and soldiers. A special magazine, *Down with Illiteracy*, was published in large type, while a peasant newspaper, *Bednota* (The Poor Peasant) produced a special supplement for beginners. Every effort was made by state and public organizations to develop a wide network of libraries, clubs and educational institutions to meet the growing cultural requirements of the newly taught people; the publishing business was also extended. Today one person out of every four inhabitants is engaged in study of one kind or another.

The number of libraries now exceeds 400,000, so that there is an average of one library to every five hundred citizens in the Soviet Union.⁸ State and public institutions in the Soviet Republics work in the vernacular. This has enabled the masses of non-Russian peoples to raise their cultural level. Kazakhstan (about five times the size of France) has 10,500 libraries, with 10,000,000 volumes.⁹

Comparisons are naturally made between the achievements of Russia and of other countries. It is important to recall that in Russia "the whole social structure and development and the background of living are different and . . . ruthless methods can be employed which have no place, for instance, in British policy and practice. The problem of incentive must be studied in relation to each region and people." The ruthless imposition on the British Colonies of a political and economic system or the enforcement of a code of social conduct in keeping with the ideology of a dominant political power is ruled out.¹⁰ Nevertheless Russian experience and techniques can suggest possibilities, provoke inferences, and provide stimulation of the greatest relevance to the problems of providing a vernacular literature.

While Communism provided the economic basis and setting for literacy campaigns and the development of culture among the millions on the great land masses of Eastern Europe and Asia, the peoples of the rest of the world have been divided by differing economic systems, languages, political organization, and social traditions. It is obvious that it would not be possible to print the huge editions, with consequent reduction in cost, that have been possible in Russia. Much of the Russian success was due to centralized planning by the state. The planning of culture and literature is uncongenial to non-Communist states. They must do without the hysterical ideological incentive and rely on Nationalism and the more humane—but slower

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—incentives of individual interest, channelled at times by economic or health considerations, to provide the basis for a new culture.

There seems little doubt that one of the strongest incentives towards literacy and the spread of indigenous literature is national independence or the promise of it. This is very clearly illustrated from events in India. In 1936, when the first Congress Ministries came into power, Syed Mohmud, minister of education in Bihar, had arranged for a hundred booklets—ten to twelve pages, crown octavo size, for one anna—on various topics to be printed in Hindustani. "But the project was abandoned soon after the Congress Ministries resigned. In recent years the greatest impulse came from the Union Ministry of Education in 1950."¹¹ In Ceylon educational institutions known as "pirivenas" were established at all the big Buddhist temples. Monks endeavored to impart to adults instruction in religion, philosophy, and oriental languages. Foreign rule and the introduction of a foreign language of administration were partly responsible for preventing these institutions from attaining the importance they might have assumed.¹² In Burma, the government Translation Bureau was started in 1939, but disbanded because of the war. Nevertheless, during the war a group of devoted literary men continued the task of creating manuscripts in Burmese through the Education Department, but few titles were published. In 1947, with the granting of independence, the Honorable U Nu, the prime minister, founded the Burma Translation Society in order to bring Burmese language and literature up-to-date and to print and distribute books on all subjects.¹³ The prospect of independence and the need for an educated populace was the chief reason for the success of mass education in Ghana from 1951. In Northern Nigeria, due to attain independence in 1960, a centralized plan has replaced sporadic efforts at adult education. Political objectives, according to W. F. Jeffries, require a simultaneous and comprehensive program initiated by the government and showing quick results. Like vaccination, such a literacy drive is an emergency measure and demands professional efficiency.¹⁴ In twelve years, in Northern Nigeria, 750,000 have learned to read. Tuition will be provided for 3,000,000 more.¹⁵ By 1954 twenty languages in a common orthography were employed in class books. Thirteen vernacular editors produced reading sheets, thirty page booklets and *Nasiha*, a periodical devoted to religious and moral subjects.¹⁶

Changes in political status bring changes in the status of language.

"Vernacular" is therefore a relative term, the meaning of which, however, is usually well enough understood. It seems hardly reasonable to call English or Arabic vernacular, for they are the official languages of independent countries. But what of the languages of the Philippines, Burma, Pakistan, India, Ceylon, Indonesia, and Israel, all of them new-born states, which have adopted new official national languages? Formerly, these languages would have been defined, unhesitatingly, as vernaculars, for they would have been contrasted with the foreign official language. "But the truth is that for some time to come these new languages will be just as foreign—if not more so—to many inhabitants as the European ones were."¹⁷ In all of these—and in many more languages—the provision of literature will occupy the attention of governments, literacy committees, educationists, linguists, publishers, librarians, and readers for many years to come. The somewhat derogatory use of the word "vernacular" no longer serves any purpose. In Israel ancient Hebrew is being turned, as a national language since 1946, into a vernacular. It has been changed within a generation "from an archaic bookish idiom, rhetorical and involved in style, into a precise, realistic, modern language." In Arabic also there is a general movement today to bridge the gap between the classical and colloquial forms "by improving the classic form so as to make it the general medium of instruction at all school levels."¹⁸

As with languages, so the concept of reading itself has changed radically from that of "word recognition" in 1900 to the modern requirement of "modifying ideas and behavior in the light of what is read."¹⁹ Research workers have directed attention to the gap between "minimum standards of literacy" and the ability to read fluently for information or pleasure. They have recommended that special attention be paid to the provision of literature for "newly-literates"—simple reading material of real interest to the reader. There are many areas, however, where the gap is limitless, for there is no literature to reach on the other side. What is needed here is the provision of a whole range of reading matter at all levels of difficulty and which may represent the only source of reading material available to the general public.²⁰

In the early days of enthusiasm for mass literacy, people were often taught how to read before any thought had been given to what was available for them to read. The crying need for follow-up material has become increasingly obvious. Progress in the use of vari-typing

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and various kinds of small offset machines and high speed printing makes more practicable the low-cost printing of vernacular literature. Unesco is helping, therefore, to encourage writers and translators by establishing "literary workshops" in India and in other parts of the world. In the Philippines, a center at Bayambang was started in 1953 for "the printing and preparation of materials for adult education and community education."²¹ Here, during February and March, 1956, a national workshop was held under the auspices of the government and Unesco. It was attended by fifty-one supervisors and principals of schools and by five provincial librarians. The aim of the course was to teach the practical skills needed for the preparation and writing of books suitable for children, youths, and adults and to evolve short courses of training for teachers in rural areas to prepare such reading materials. Although the object of the course was training, not production, it did result in forty-six booklets in twelve different dialects. The booklets were not perfect but it was felt that they could be revised and improved in use.²²

Other agencies have followed Unesco's lead. In July 1959, the *Times* correspondent in Pretoria reported that eighty-seven African writers from South Africa, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland and the United Kingdom High Commission Protectorates were attending a conference under the auspices of the principal churches in South Africa. The gathering was an attempt to provide help and guidance for African authors to develop the production and distribution of Christian and other literature among the Bantu of southern Africa.

Where there was no literature, missionary societies were often the first to try to provide it. Now the International Christian Council for Literature for Africa advises on cooperative planning, selection of languages, greater use of periodicals, and the training of authors. In the field are many devoted workers, such as the elderly and saintly missionary whom W. E. Welmers and Nida met in French Guinea.²³ Welmers recounts how after the missionary "had prepared in almost final form a manuscript of the entire Old Testament in Bambarra, we young upstarts managed to convince him that the written form of the language requires seven vowel symbols instead of the five he was using. When we left that place we looked for him to say good-bye and found him closeted with a speaker of the language, conscientiously making the required orthographic changes. He had gotten as far as verse 12 in the first chapter of Genesis." Welmers thinks that there are probably more than four hundred African lan-

guages into which no part of the Bible has as yet been translated. "We cannot even assume that the job is finished for the few languages for which translations are available. When we consider the years of work which a committee of scholars devotes to a revised translation of the Bible in English, it is only reasonable to suppose that a translation prepared almost single-handedly, often by a person with the most limited training, needs revision."²⁴

Welmers pleads for a whole Bible in every language, no matter how small it is. "Shall we forbid any man God's word because he does not speak Hausa or Swahili—or English or Portuguese?" It is not a problem of staff. Many missions have a full-time builder. Many missions have full-time agricultural and medical personnel. "Are we going to try to apply a message which we cannot proclaim?" What is needed, he urges, is "dogged and detailed linguistic and anthropological research, giving unstintingly the best scholarly talent and the deepest spiritual devotion that the Church can command, recognising in a paper-bound Gospel translation as an important fruit of our missionary enterprise as a great industrial and agricultural institute."

Translations of the Bible, even if they were once the most familiar expression of the desire to provide literature in the vernacular, today form but a small proportion of the output of vernacular reading. Nor must it be assumed that most of the other work is in translation. Burma, Pakistan, India, Ceylon, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaya, Singapore, Ghana, Brunei, U.S.S.R., islands in the South Pacific, and the states of Latin America, all have growing numbers of books written in the vernacular—some of them better described as vernacular material than as vernacular literature. In this field the less-developed territories cannot follow the same path as the older civilizations, where a few great authors created a literature, while popular manuals and cheap books followed centuries later. Today literacy is demanded, if not by all governments, then by the complexities of modern life both in the East and in the West, while great writers may take years, if not centuries, to emerge.

The public librarian, necessarily concerned with the new literacy, who thinks of his library as "an institution of scholars," is quickly being superseded by a type of social worker whose skill as a librarian is of quite a different order—"an instrument for the creation of citizens"—whose library is "for the use of literacy, for further education, for technical progress, for cultural and recreative purposes." The public library has become a community center and an agency for

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assisting the aims of other cultural, recreative, and educational organizations. It seems clear that in the newly developing territories librarians will be able not only to conserve, catalog and analyze books, but will be asked and should be able to advise on the production and publication of new books.²⁵

Cheap literature, however, is only one of the modern mass media of communication and needs to be justified as a weapon in the armory of those working for economic and social betterment. Yet this is one of the most difficult things to do statistically. "We have almost no really solid information about the effects of reading or of any of the other media of communication. . . . The librarian should know a great deal more than he does about the effectiveness of different kinds of printed materials, . . . and of the audiences who are most and least affected, and by what kinds of content." With this knowledge the librarian could perform more efficiently the important role in society which should be his. At present it seems that accessibility, then readability and only then interest are the factors which lead people to read the specific things they do.²⁶ But even if he did know what people want to read the publisher is still presented with the insuperable difficulties in the need for specialized editions in differing dialects, for separate environments and for readers' varying tastes.

In the South Pacific, for example, the South Pacific Commission is an international body concerned with the improvement of standards of living. The problems facing its Literature Bureau are described by Bruce Roberts, its director, in an interview recorded in *Oversea Education* in April 1956. Since there are six hundred languages in the area, which extends for 8,000 miles over the South Pacific, the Bureau has decided that it can only afford to produce literature in a second language—English or French—and to leave the relatively expensive publication of small editions in vernacular languages to the territories where they occur. Even in the second language editions differences between the islands are important, e.g. the social measures required to eradicate the mosquito responsible for elephantiasis are different in Samoa from those in other islands. Illustrations provoke the gibe: "This is not the sort of house we live in." Short run editions are also required for local problems, e.g. how to live on a sago swamp is quite different from how to live on a rice swamp.

Publishers, whether they be government-sponsored literature bureaus, commercial houses, or international agencies such as the Or-

ganization of American States, can now easily discover what is needed in any part of the world. Their difficulties lie elsewhere. The problem is one of organization, not of techniques.²⁷ Other economic considerations still require investigation. Seth Spaulding's inquiry into the effectiveness of fundamental reading materials for Latin American adults did not have to take into account their sales appeal. What gives books the kind of appeal that results in new literates being willing to buy publications at an economic price?²⁸ Large and continuing government subsidies make it harder to apply the "box-office" test and to that extent hinder publishers from sensing what the public wants. J. E. Morpurgo, director of the National Book League of Great Britain, who directed a Unesco Regional Seminar on the Production of Reading Materials for New Literates and the New Reading Public in November 1957, at Rangoon, sums up the views of those primarily responsible for grasping and holding the attention of the new public—authors, publishers, and illustrators. He says: "The principal requirement for books for the new reading public is that they should be attractive in subject matter, style, production, quality and price . . . it is necessary to train and encourage good professional publishers, printers and illustrators. To bring them to the public it is essential that we should find methods of creating publicity, distribution outlets and sales points which do not exist in many parts of the world." Where the public purse is small, "it is as important to spend the limited public funds on providing free school books, on building up school and public libraries and on publicizing the advantage of reading, as to go in for production programs which too often involve large-scale investments."²⁹

The report of the Rangoon seminar, published by the Burma Translation Society in Rangoon in 1958, serves as a complete guide to publishers. It covers the following topics: Publishing in the East and West; What to write about; A new kind of author; Will they buy? Are they reading? The artist's job; To and through the press; Government support . . . and it has appendices concerned with developing and testing a topic; interviewing technique; Key-step content planning of books; how to prepare communicative publications; and the text of the *New Life* booklet.

Librarians, however, especially in universities and in industry, are finding that they have to spend more and more time supplying and analyzing periodicals. Literature bureaus and literacy development agencies have not always made adequate or efficient use of the

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periodical. Frank Laubach's son, R. S. Laubach, of the School of Journalism, Syracuse University, in collaboration with experienced literary workers from Nigeria, East Africa, India, and Japan, compiled for Unesco in 1957 a booklet on how to produce periodicals specially designed for new literates.³⁰

If accessibility is the prime factor in influencing people's choice of what to read, then distribution channels must be planned, be kept in good repair and be constantly extended. Since even in the United Kingdom there are only three hundred to four hundred "pedigree" bookshops (i.e. selling only books) out of a membership of 2,750 members of the Booksellers' Association, it is foolish in underdeveloped areas to rely mainly on bookshops for distribution. Something more active is needed. The modern colporteur is the book-mobile. Publishing is still too often divorced from distribution in accordance with Western economic tradition. As a result literature bureaus set up from government funds have to rely on some other department of government to distribute their products. Thus the Ghana Vernacular Literature Bureau has been entrusted with three vans by the Department of Social Welfare to help it to distribute its books. Vans are not in themselves sufficient, any more than is a patient but unenterprising clerk behind a bookstall counter. People must be bullied into buying books, especially if they are about smallpox or sanitation. "It has been found essential to mount loudspeakers on each of these vans, so that all and sundry become aware of its presence and immediately on its arrival in a village. The vans have visited mass literacy rallies wherever possible, but the response on these occasions has been disappointing. The best results have been obtained by visiting towns and villages on market days."³¹ Vans are expensive but any continuing groups of the public, whether based on interest, occupation, or administrative organization may be found useful as distributing agencies, since they will undertake some propaganda and may be entrusted with the financial responsibility for stocks of books or periodicals. Women's groups, trade unions, schools, and extension agents are all helping. In the Punjab and North-West Frontier region of Pakistan the task of distribution and even of literacy teaching was taken up by the police and worked quite well.

The most interesting problem remains how to plan a development of the use of literacy. Conditions in underdeveloped areas will not allow the slow growth towards universal literacy which has characterized Western Europe. Newly independent nations with the re-

sources of modern technological advances offered to them do not need to await the chance effects of "hit and miss" publishing. Literature must be provided for literates. Adults must be given the same chance as their children. Unassisted voluntary agencies, with specialized interests, and government departments, intent on solving only their own problems, cannot be left to teach sections of the populace to read, for their own purposes. Literacy is a double-edged weapon and therefore governments today have a heavier responsibility for insuring balanced and orderly progress. The radio is more suited to dealing with crises and for propaganda campaigns. Literacy must educate the whole man. Governments must insure that their peoples are fit to take their place in the community of civilized nations. There is a clear need for vernacular literature bureaus and agencies, nor must they be mere extensions of the government printing office putting out only official instructions and informative leaflets. In the period leading up to the establishment of successful, public-spirited and sensitive publishers and booksellers, a bureau will be needed to act as a temporary intermediary between official and commercial publishing. It alone will be in a position to build up the necessary combination of technical knowledge and publishing experience or "flair." It alone can provide the machinery needed for a continuous effort to deal with all the problems of literature production.

Such bureaus are now well established in most of the areas of illiteracy. Their range of functions and scale of operation vary with the needs and resources of the regions they serve. Few of them have been as ambitious or as successful as the Burma Translation Society. Burma is a mongoloid country so that reasonably sized editions can be printed. Although the Society has only recently recognized the special needs of new literates, it produces on a regular basis materials for adults learning to read and includes in its program the entire range of audience levels, i.e. encyclopedias, technical training manuals, textbooks and books of general interest even for the most advanced readers. Its activities also include training classes for printers and journalists, library services, cultural shows, literary awards, and adult evening classes. In four years it has become largely self-supporting. In 1956, 80 per cent of its revenue came from bulk orders by the government, but in 1959 80 per cent of its one million dollar income came from sales to the public through booksellers. Very few of the Society's publications are direct translations from other languages. The Society's principal aim is to provide the general public with

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literature in Burmese on all aspects of world thought. Series already published include: Mass Enlightenment Series, The Pocket Series, The Home University Series, series on Science, History, Fifty Years (covering developments in travel, science, sports, education, commerce, world affairs, all from 1900 to 1950), Great Books Series, Children's Books Series, and Pyidawtha [Welfare State] Series. Shortly the Society will act as publishers for the Rangoon University, printing textbooks and reference materials. A fourteen volume *Burmese Pictorial Encyclopaedia* is nearly complete. All this provides a literature, the road to which is opened for new literates by The People's Handbook Series and the Short Story Series. It was essential to choose for these information of real importance in the lives of the rural audience.

In 1951 the *Sarpay Beikman* magazine was started. It covers in simple language and attractive presentation for new literates the progress of relevant science and seeks to foster civic and international consciousness by dealing with current events in the world at large. It also prints lists of technical terms standardized into Burmese under the "Continuing Technical Terms Project." There is a consumer research department attached to the Society which studies the reading interests and habits of villagers. A reply-paid postcard is included with every copy of the magazine, on which readers are asked to express their opinion of articles. The purpose of the Research Division is to carry out evaluation studies and studies of a fundamental nature on problems of communication.

The title "Translation Society," having become anachronistic, was changed in 1959 to "The Sarpay Beikman [Palace of Literature] Institute." Since April 1959 David Turner, co-owner of the Arco Publishing Company of New York, has been working with the Institute to carry the development program into its final stages.³²

Finally, in addition to such forms of international cooperation in the field, great assistance in linguistic research on vernacular languages may be expected from institutions of higher learning in the more advanced countries of the world. The printing of oriental languages appears to present no difficulty in the U.S.S.R. and a special publishing house has been created for the Institute of Oriental Studies in the Academy of Sciences in Moscow. The London *Times* for June 2, 1959 gives an account of a report prepared by representatives from all member countries of N.A.T.O. which emphasizes the need for a wider knowledge of Asian languages—a shift of emphasis, even

among Orientalists, from classical to modern studies, e.g. from Sanskrit to Hindi. American officials are disturbed that at least fifty languages, each spoken by more than two million people (fourteen of them between ten and forty-two million), are not taught in any American institution of higher education.

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The Bibliography of Newly Developing Areas

HELEN F. CONOVER

WHERESOEVER THE CARCASE—i.e. the swelling body of writing about Asia, Africa, and Middle East, and Latin America—is, there will the eagles—i.e., the bibliographers—be gathered together. There is no lack of bibliography for the newly developing areas. Bibliographical serials and monographs, catalogs and reading lists emanate from the countries now emerging into the international political and economic scene, and equally from the nations studying them with a view to influencing their direction. A brief article cannot encompass more than a suggestion of the extent of this bibliographical activity, but it may be useful to outline some of the main patterns followed, and to give a few outstanding examples.

The general over-all picture gives a prominent place to Unesco. Its Department of Cultural Activities in 1950 established an Advisory Committee on Bibliography, has encouraged the formation of National Commissions for Bibliography in many countries, has maintained a steady exchange of correspondence with national representatives, has promoted international conferences, and in chosen spots has provided the direct assistance of advisors and contracts. The first of the Unesco series of bibliographical handbooks, prepared by Knud Larsen, charted *National Bibliographical Services, Their Creation and Operation* (Paris, 1953). Annual reports on *Bibliographical Services throughout the World*, based on replies from member states to questionnaires, began in 1951. The first two were prepared by Mlle. L. N. Malclès, the later ones by R. L. Collison. The fourth edition, covering 1954–55 (Paris, June 1957), includes reports from forty-one countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The fifth, for 1956 (Paris, December 1958) contains reports from sixty countries in these three continents, The author is Bibliographer, General Reference and Bibliography Division, Library of Congress.

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less full than the preceding. These volumes, supplemented by the *Unesco Bulletin for Libraries* and the *Bibliographical Newsletter* published monthly by the Libraries Division of Unesco, offer the most complete available record of what is happening everywhere in the field of national bibliography. For the countless new bibliographies in science and technology, the *Unesco Monthly Bulletin on Scientific Documentation and Terminology* is the standard source.

The *Unesco Publications Check-List* (2d rev. ed., 1958, and supplements) provides a useful record of its own bibliographical publications. Among those of particular import with regard to newly developing areas are Jean Meyriat's *Study of Current Bibliographies of National Official Publications; Short Guide and Inventory* (Paris, 1958, 260 p.), and the annual *International Bibliography of Political Science*, *International Bibliography of Economics*, *International Bibliography of Social and Cultural Anthropology*, *International Bibliography of Sociology*, all prepared for Unesco by the International Committee for Social Sciences Documentation. On specific topics, the literature of land tenure, of industrialization in underdeveloped countries, of assistance to underdeveloped countries, of health, and of fundamental education have been the subject of bibliographies from Unesco and other United Nations affiliates.

The international lists, which are often based on information submitted by representatives in the Member Nations, may tend to be less compactly organized than bibliographies prepared through intensive study of individual issues by research organizations. Notable examples of the latter in the general field would include the annotated reading list by Arthur Hazlewood, *The Economics of "Under-Developed" Areas*, published by the Institute of Colonial Studies at Oxford in 1954 and enlarged to almost twice the original size in the second edition (London, Oxford University Press, 1959, 156 p.), the *Selected Bibliography on Economic Development and Foreign Aid* prepared by Marjorie Hald for the Rand Corporation (Santa Monica, Calif., 1957, 93 p.), and the fifty-odd pages of annotated bibliography included in the study of *Capital Formation and Investment in Underdeveloped Areas* made for the Ford Foundation by Charles Wolf, Jr. and S. C. Sufrin (Syracuse University Press, 1958, pp. 69-124). A few other works of the same over-all nature are named in a short list of selected references at the end of this paper.

In individual countries, important among desiderata, from their own as well as from the international standpoint, is a current national bib-

liography—an up-to-date continuing record of new books and pamphlets, documents and serials published within the country. This is usually based on legal deposit of publications in national libraries or Departments of Education. Current national bibliographies suffer under many stages of official delay, and to supplement for immediate information of literary output the lists in journals of the book trade are indispensable—as is, in the United States, the *Publishers' Weekly!* In quite a few countries no other sources are as yet available for current material. National bibliographical organizations are also concerned with retrospective national bibliographies, catalogs of library holdings, and union lists of available source materials, especially with regard to scientific and technical documentation.

Significant bibliographical contributions to area study from the West result largely from team research, and are usually of international coverage, at least as to Western languages. Continuing bibliographies of writings concerned with specific areas are carried in or as annual supplements to the journals of such learned societies as the Association for Asian Studies, the Middle East Institute, the Société des Océanistes, the International African Institute, the Hispanic Institute in the United States, and special bibliographical articles often appear in these journals. The departments for area study of the big universities, and individual scholars in these departments, produce impressive bibliographical works. The Library of Congress, the Pan American Union, and other official libraries have prepared many area bibliographies. The interest of the lay reader is recognized in short selective reading lists from libraries and other organizations concerned with public orientation. And of course almost every book-length study of any area or problem includes its own list of references, which in many cases—Wolf and Sufrin above-cited is a good example—is not to be ignored.

In the following region-by-region review, bibliographies of the countries themselves are first considered, then the main outlines of Western study are drawn, without attempt to mention the too numerous individual titles. A few, selected as examples, are listed in the concluding section of references.

In Southern Asia the Unesco drive for development of current national bibliography has become fully operational in only two countries, Indonesia and India. The Indonesia monthly, *Berita Bulanan*, published by the National Bibliographical Center in Djakarta, led the way, having been begun in January 1953; it is a comprehensive record

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of works in all languages published within the country. The new *India National Bibliography*, launched by the National Library in Calcutta in the fourth quarter of 1957, after a small preliminary fascicle, is one of the notable recent achievements of the library world. Modeled on the *British National Bibliography*, the third issue, April-June 1958 (listed as Vol. 1, no. 2) has almost three hundred pages, designed to comprehend all books and periodical publications of India in fourteen languages, copies of which are received under legal deposit in the National Library—an annual output of nearly 20,000 publications. The bibliography is in two parts, the first of unofficial works, the second of government publications, each with decimal classification, colon classification numbers, and indexes by author, title, and subject. Official documents of India are recorded separately in a monthly list of *Government of India Publications*, emanating from the Manager of Publications of the Republic of India in New Delhi. The Parliament of India Secretariat has also a monographic *List of Publications (Periodical or ad hoc) Issued by Various Ministries of the Government of India*, the third edition of which was compiled to March 1957 (New Delhi, 1958. 282 p.). The Indian Ministry of Education and Scientific Research issues its own catalog of publications, and in its *Education Quarterly* analyzes the contents of twenty or more Indian periodicals in the educational field.

Thailand has no national bibliography, though its National Library has perhaps shown a beginning of interest in issuing a *List of Thai Government Publications* covering the years 1954-56 (Bangkok, 1957. 32 l.). In Burma, Ceylon, the Federation of Malaya and Singapore, lists of books published within the country appear only as registered in occasional issues of the government gazettes. Pakistan has an active Bibliographical Working Group, which has published, among other works on library matters, *A Guide to Periodical Publications and Newspapers of Pakistan*, by A. Moid and A. H. Siddiqui (Karachi, 1953. 60 p.). For Southern Viet-Nam there is a recent bibliography compiled by C. G. Ambekar of the E.C.A.F.E. (United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East) Library in Bangkok, *Viet-Nam: a Reading List* (Dec. 1958. 42 p.). It is confined to what is actually available in the library, books, pamphlets, and periodicals, and though it includes a number of official publications of Viet-Nam, the majority of the references come from outside the country. A new *Bibliographie du Laos*, by Thao Kéne, has been issued by the Comité Littéraire in Vientiane (1958. 68 l.). Bibli-

ographies on Cambodia, and New Guinea emanate from the West or New Zealand. The Philippines sent no report to Unesco as to bibliographical services in 1954-55. In 1955, however, an *Index to Philippine Periodicals* was undertaken by the Inter-Departmental Reference Service in Manila, and two annual cumulations have appeared (Vol. 2, Oct. 1956-Sept. 1957, 670 p.). A Bibliographical Society has been formed, and its chairman, C. O. Houston, contributed a seventy-page "Philippine Bibliography" to the April 1955 number of the *Journal of East Asiatic Studies* published by the University of Manila. (Unfortunately this writer has only the reference and is unable to describe the bibliography.) A new monthly list of *Philippine Government Publications* was started in 1958 by the Bureau of Public Libraries in Manila. The Unesco National Commission in Manila has issued a list of *Publications of Educational Institutions and Organizations in the Philippines* (1954, 47 p.). The Library of Congress has received the first volume of what is presumably a retrospective *Annotated Bibliography of Philippine Social Sciences*, compiled by A. G. Hufana and R. V. Diaz (Quezon City, 1956, Vol. I. Economics, 525 p.). Bibliographies of the islands of the Pacific come from outside the area (Hawaii as an American state is left out of this consideration), as do also those for Afghanistan. In the Unesco survey for 1956 there is a full report from the U.S.S.R. which includes mention of "chronicles" of books and articles published in the Soviet Republics of Asia.

Scientific interests are to the fore in Southern Asia and with the help of Unesco Field Science Cooperation Offices, a number of national centers have been set up for documentation. Lists of scientific and technical publications have been coming out since 1949; they are now united in the quarterly *Bibliography of Scientific Publications of South and Southeast Asia* (Vol. 2, no. 1, April 1956), compiled jointly by the Unesco Science Cooperation Offices in New Delhi and Djakarta, and published by the Indian National Science Documentation Centre (I.N.S.D.O.C.) in New Delhi. I.N.S.D.O.C. acts as a national commission for bibliography, publishing a semi-monthly list of *Current Scientific Literature* which analyzes contents of leading scientific and technical journals of the world with a particular view to the expanding needs of the region. A new quarterly, *Indonesian Abstracts: Abstracts on Current Scientific Indonesian Literature*, is being undertaken by the Council for Sciences of Indonesia in Djakarta (Vol. 1, no. 1, July 1958). There has recently appeared a *Regional*

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Bibliography of Social Science Publications: Indonesia, by R. Pamuntjak, published by the National Bibliographic Centre of the Ministry of Education and Culture. In Pakistan a Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre was formed with Unesco advice in 1956-57, and by 1959 has prepared about sixty special bibliographies. The former Unesco South Asia Science Co-operation Office in New Delhi, which began an annual volume of *South Asia Social Science Abstracts* in 1952, moved to Calcutta and became the Research Centre on the Social Implications of Industrialization in Southern Asia. It issues an annual *Social Science Bibliography: India*, which with No. 6, 1957, published in 1958, became *India and Pakistan*; in future volumes it plans to expand still further its geographical coverage. The ends of economic development are stressed in the semi-annual *Asian Bibliography* published by the Library of E.C.A.F.E. in Bangkok (Vol. 7, Jan.-June 1958, 46 p.).

In the Far East, a comprehensive national bibliography of Communist China, *Ch'üan kuo hsin shu mu* (National Bibliography of New Books) was launched with an annual volume in 1950. Put out by the Publications Bureau of the Central Government in Peiping, its frequency has varied; it was monthly in 1954 and 1955, had twenty-one issues in 1958, and is currently reported to be appearing three times a month. Cumulative volumes, *Ch'üan quo tsung shu mu* (Comprehensive National Bibliography) have been issued for 1949-54 and 1955, 1956 and 1957. There is also a current index to materials appearing in important newspapers and journals, entitled *Ch'üan kuo chu yao pao k'an tzü liao so yin*, published monthly by the Shanghai Municipal Library of Periodicals.

The only extensive record of publication in Free China since the establishment of the National Government in Formosa in 1949 is the two-volume *Chung hua min kuo ch'u pan t'u shu mu lu* (National Bibliography of the Republic of China), compiled by the National Central Library in Taipei in 1955 and published in the third series of the Citizens' Library of Fundamental Knowledge. The list, classified by disciplines, contains some 5,000 titles of works in the Library under legal deposit, covering the years 1949-54 and 1955. The compilation for 1956 has not yet been reported, but the National Central Library has compiled a retrospective bibliography on Chinese civilization and has issued a list in English, *Selected Bibliography of the Republic of China* (Taipei, 1957, 59 p.). The latter names about 1,200 works published in Formosa since 1949, with descriptions in English

and a useful "Directory of Publishers," with street addresses. The two-volume bibliography includes non-Communist works in Chinese published in Hong Kong. The only other source for that British enclave is the difficult one of the *Government Gazette*, which carries a "Quarterly Return of Books Registered" (probably not all-inclusive) and occasionally lists official publications in stock at the Government Printer's.

Korea has not yet achieved a national bibliography. The most complete current listing is in the trade journal of the Korean Association of Cultural Publishing, *Ch'ulp'an munhwa*. A cumulative supplement, *Ch'ulp'an taegam* (Register of Publications) was issued in 1948 and again in 1956. A selective bibliography with text in English describing Korean books and articles useful for study of the country is published in the monthly *Asiatic Research Bulletin* (No. 1, Dec. 1957) of the Asiatic Research Centre of Korea University in Seoul. A Korean scholar, Jai Chul Lee, edited a *Guide to Korean Reference Books, 1910-1958*, a 92-page annotated list modeled on Winchell, with text in Korean. It was published by the Yonsei University Library School of the George Peabody College for Teachers. For North Korea the only record available is a small annotated list of books and pamphlets issued monthly by the International Publishing House in Pyongyang, *Korean Books*, with editions also in Russian, Korean, and Chinese. A good proportion of the works cited are translations of Soviet literature.

The question as to whether Japan should be included in a survey of newly developing areas may perhaps be answered negatively by a glance at the report to Unesco in 1955, which contains an impressive list of the many union catalogs and special subject bibliographies being issued by bibliographical circles in that country. The National Diet Library in Tokyo publishes a weekly current national bibliography with annual cumulation (1958 volume now in print) and monthly supplement of new serial titles, a separate list of government publications, and an index of periodical articles, and a directory of learned periodicals, and other guides to the nation's literature.

From the West there come several important continuing bibliographies for works in many languages relating to Asia. The Library of the School of Oriental and African Studies of the University of London has issued since 1954 a *Monthly List of Periodical Articles on the Far East and South East Asia*, with annual cumulations. The *Southern Asia Accessions List* published by the Orientalia Division

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of the Library of Congress (Washington, 1952+; quarterly, 1952-56, since 1957 monthly) is more limited as to area covered, but more comprehensive in its inclusion of books, pamphlets, and documents as well as periodical material. Classified by country and by subject, it now contains a section of titles in several vernacular languages—Hindi, Vietnamese, Indonesian, Sudanese, and Tagalog. An important serial bibliography for Asia is the annual "Bibliography of Asian Studies" published each September as a fifth number of the *Journal of Asian Studies* (formerly *Far Eastern Quarterly*), the organ of the learned body now known as the Association for Asian Studies. This compilation has sections for Asia and the Far East in General, China, Japan, Korea, Central Asia, and Siberia, Southeast Asia and South Asia, providing an extensive international coverage of books and articles in scholarly journals. Source material in Russian and other languages on Soviet Central Asia is listed and reviewed in the quarterly *Central Asian Review*, the journal of the Central Asian Research Centre in London, in association with the Soviet Affairs Study Group of St. Antony's College, Oxford.

Bibliographical monographs on Asia have been brought out in considerable numbers by departments and projects of regional studies at universities, libraries, learned institutions, and by individuals in America and abroad. The Human Relations Area Files at New Haven, which provide on 5 x 8 cards (for which microcards are now being prepared) perhaps the most complete record ever attempted of world cultures and institutions, have covered most parts of Asia in their Behavior Science Bibliographies and/or in the bibliographical sections provided in their Country Surveys and other series. The H.R.A.F. programs are sometimes carried out by the Department of Southeast Asia Studies at Yale and comparable departments in other universities. There are institutes—for instance the Institute of Pacific Relations—which have made a point of preparing short selected reading lists for a wide public. Bibliographies from abroad run along parallel lines, coming from England, France, Germany, and from behind the Iron Curtain. It is noteworthy that Japan has made contributions to Asian bibliography, and that scholars have gathered lists of material in Russian as well as Oriental languages. The titles given as examples at the end of the paper are necessarily restricted to a sampling from recent years.

In the Middle East, the Turkish national bibliography long antedates Unesco. It is *Türkiye bibliyografyası*, begun as a monthly in 1928

by the Ministry of Education and compiled by the National Library; since 1934 it has been based on legal deposit. Cumulated decennial volumes have been published for 1928-38 and Part I, "Unofficial Publications," for 1939-48. In 1951 an Institute of Bibliography of the National Library was formed, and began a monthly index of articles in Turkish periodicals, *Türkiye makaleler bibliğrafyası*. The Institute in 1955 took over publication also of the *Türkiye bibliğrafyası*. In Israel the Jewish National and University Library presents the national bibliography of the country in its distinguished bibliographical quarterly, *Kirjath Sepher* (Jerusalem, 1924+) which carries articles of bibliographical interest and a long bibliography including, besides national output, works on Israel, Judaica, and Hebraica published throughout the world.

An approach to official national bibliography in the United Arab Republic is made in two serials, *Al-Nashrah al-thaqāfiyah al-Misriyah* (Egyptian Cultural Bulletin; until 1956, Cultural Register) published quarterly by the Ministry of Education and including a listing of new publications, and in the Accessions List of the National Library in Cairo, *Nashrat dar al-kutub al-Misriyah*, issued since 1948, and covering a wide field of new literature from all Arab countries. National bibliographical commissions formed under Unesco inspiration have not as yet undertaken continuing bibliographies for their respective countries. In Cairo the Unesco Middle East Science Cooperation Office helped in 1954 with the establishment of a Scientific and Documentation Centre which in 1957 was converted into a division of the National Research Centre of Egypt. Since 1955 it has published an annual *Classified List of Egyptian Scientific Papers*, which now appears as Part II of the *Documentation Bulletin of the National Research Centre*, and is a short list of abstracts of scientific papers published in Egypt and other parts of the Arab world.

Iran has an unofficial bibliographical publication, the monthly *Ketābhaie mād̄h* (Livres du mois) issued by the Publishers' Association in Teheran. The 1954-55 and 1956 reports of Iran to Unesco mention a current national bibliography of Iran, compiled annually by Iraj Afshar of Teheran University; the first edition, for 1954-55, issued as a supplement to the review of Iranian studies, *Farhangue Iran Zamine*, of which Afshar is director, the second published by the Librairie Ibn-e-Sina (Tehran, 1956. 80 p.). Neither edition has reached the Library of Congress. Jamal Mouhasseb of the American University of Beirut attempted in 1956 to begin a continuing bibli-

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ography for Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, and Syria, *Al Maktaba*, and three half-yearly issues appeared, carrying selective annotated lists of seventy or more items. It is sad to report that no word has been heard of the project since 1957. As to special bibliographies in the Near East, the Economic Research Institute of the American University of Beirut compiled *A Selected Annotated Bibliography of Economic Literature on the Arabic Speaking Countries of the Middle East* (Beirut, Gedeon Press, 1954. 199 p.), which has had at least two annual supplements. Two volumes of a *Selected Bibliography of Articles Dealing with the Middle East*, 1939-50 and 1951-54, have been published by the Economic Research Institute of the Hebrew University in Jerusalem.

In the West, study of the Middle East is carried on by many learned institutions, prominent among which is the Middle East Institute in Washington. Its quarterly *Middle East Journal* is among the most useful library tools for the region, containing a chronology of events in the area, a long section of reviews of all notable books, and a classified "Bibliography of Periodical Literature." The Institute has also published a number of bibliographical monographs and for two years, 1955 and 1956, prepared an annual survey of *Current Research on the Middle East*. This unfortunately has not been continued. The international listing of periodical material, books and pamphlets concerned specially with Israel, but extended to the whole Middle Eastern region, *Palestine and Zionism*, published since 1946 by the Zionist Archives and Library in New York, now covers literature of the year 1956 (1958, 181 p.). The anthropologist Henry Field has produced four increasingly extensive volumes of *Bibliography of Southwestern Asia* (Coral Gables, Fla., University of Miami Press, 1953-57), the last comprising over 12,000 titles in thirty-two languages, divided between anthropogeography and natural history. A continuing bibliography for the Soviet Middle East appears in the *Caucasian Review*, published twice a year by the Institute for the Study of the U.S.S.R. in Munich. It covers Georgia, the Caucasus, Azerbaidjan, and Armenia, and is supplemented by occasional bibliographical articles or annexes relating to these regions.

The note on Africa in a Library of Congress study of *Current National Bibliographies* made in 1954 speaks of the lack of any such concept in Africa, the paucity of publication in the independent nations, the merging of publishing effort with that of the mother country in dependent areas, and the ephemeral nature of literature in the vernaculars. The situation still holds, although Collison for his 1956

Unesco survey received answers from fourteen African countries. That from Kenya in 1954-55 puts a typical case succinctly:

No list of publications issued is kept, and the quick growth and death of vernacular items would make the task difficult. . . .

The Government Printer publishes lists of current publications in the *Official gazette*. The 1951 *List of government publications* has not been brought up to date.

It is questionable whether the Union of South Africa should be included in a study of newly developing areas as regards its bibliographical services. A welcome development should, however, be noted. For twelve years the South African Public Library carried a classified list of new publications from and about the Union in its *Quarterly Bulletin* (Cape Town, 1946+). Last year the list reached such proportions that it was decided to make it a separate national bibliography, *Africana Nova*, to appear quarterly. There were two issues for 1958, No. 1 in September, No. 2 in December. The first includes a list of publishers, the second has an author index as well. The South African Public Library publishes also an *Index to South African Periodicals*, and over a period of years has produced many bibliographic monographs, notably the useful *Bibliography of African Bibliographies* (revised ed., limited to Africa South of the Sahara, 1955, 169 p.). In the rest of Africa South of the Sahara there is one, and only one, successful effort toward current national bibliography—the excellent catalog, *Nigerian Publications*, published annually by the Library of University College in Ibadan (1950-52+). The Library issued a comprehensive *List of Nigerian Periodicals and Newspapers, 1950-1955* in 1956, and is reportedly at work on a large retrospective bibliography. A huge work of the retrospective nature has been prepared for the British island colony of Mauritius by its Chief Archivist, A. Toussaint: *Bibliography of Mauritius, 1502-1954, covering the Printed Record, Manuscripts, Archivalia and Cartographic Material* (Port Louis, Printed by Esclapon for the Archives Dept. of Mauritius, 1956, 884 p.), with annual supplements.

In North Africa, the national literary output in French is combined with listings of writings about the countries in most bibliographies. For Tunisia an annual bibliography appears in one number of the literary review *IBLA*. A comprehensive list of official documents of the Protectorate, *Récapitulation des périodiques officiels parus en Tunisie de 1881 à 1955*, by Hélène Pilipenko and Jean Rous-

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set de Pina, was published by the National Library (Tunis, 1956. 108 p.). In Morocco, the journal *Hespéris* includes reviews of new books and occasional bibliographies. Also the Bibliothèque Générale et Archives in Rabat puts out a mimeographed fortnightly, *Informations bibliographiques marocaines*, comprising a listing of books, pamphlets, periodical and newspaper articles relating to Morocco, and published for the most part outside the country. For Arabic literature of White Africa, the most complete source seems still to be the Accessions List of the Egyptian National Library above-mentioned. Special bibliographies for Saharan studies come from research institutions in Algiers.

The coordinated scientific documentation for Africa South of the Sahara represented by the publications of C.C.T.A. and C.S.A. (Commission for Technical Documentation in Africa South of the Sahara, and Scientific Council for Africa South of the Sahara) has not included general bibliographies, though some of the C.C.T.A. affiliates issue bibliographical bulletins in their subject fields, e.g., African soils, or trypanosomiasis research.

The surge of Western attention to Africa is well reflected in a growing number of bibliographies from Europe and America. The International African Institute in London has taken the lead in this respect, with the long classified list of new publications that has been carried in its quarterly journal, *Africa*, since Vol. 2 in 1929, and with the special quarterly *African Abstracts*, begun in 1950 with support from Unesco. The Institute in 1958 started publication of a long-awaited cumulative list, the Africa Bibliography Series, based on its bibliographical card index and prepared by the librarian, Ruth Jones. The first two sections, *West Africa*, and *North-East Africa*, were available by March 1959. The Institute sponsored a significant *Select Annotated Bibliography of Tropical Africa*, compiled by specialists under the direction of Daryll Forde for a Twentieth Century Fund survey (New York, 1956. ca. 500 p.). The Library of Congress prepared a selective annotated list for general use, *Introduction to Africa*, in 1952, and has supplemented it for writings of 1951-56 with *Africa South of the Sahara* and *North and Northeast Africa* (both in 1957). It has issued also a world list of serials and institutes publishing serially, *Information and Research on Africa: Continuing Sources* (revised edition, Washington, 1957). A continuing bibliography of the Belgian possessions, compiled by Theodore Heyse, has been published in the series, *Cahiers Belges et Congolais*, since 1946 (latest, *Documenta-*

tion générale sur le Congo et le Ruanda-Urundi, 1955-1958, Brussels, Van Campenhout, 1958. 84 p.). A list of special interest for the question of economic development is that of the International Labour Office Library in Geneva, *Africa* (Bibliographical Contributions no. 16, 1958. 97 p.). A few other lists are named in the references.

For Latin America, in the bibliographical picture there loom large, separately and jointly, the influences of Unesco and of the Organization of American States. The most recent conspicuous bibliographical guide for the region is a *Directory of Current Latin American Periodicals* prepared by the Pan American Union on Unesco contract (Washington, 1959. 266 p.). The Central American and Caribbean Pilot Seminars on Bibliography, sponsored by Unesco and co-operated in by O.A.S. (1st, Havana, 1955; 2d, Panama City, 1958) have led to the notable regional enterprise of the *Bibliografía de Centro América y del Caribe*, which is now being prepared under the direction of Fermín Peraza Sarausa and published by the Agrupación Bibliográfica Cubana in Havana, of which he is the head. One edition has appeared, for the year 1956 (printed for the Agrupación in Madrid, 173 p.). This serves as the combined national bibliographies—books, pamphlets, documents, and serials—of Panama, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Guatemala, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Puerto Rico, and Cuba. At the Panama Seminar it was recommended that Mexico be included in the next edition, that the Argentina Bibliographical Group work out a joint national list for Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, and Paraguay, and take steps toward forming a group to publish a regional current bibliography for Bolivia, Peru, Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador. The Agrupación Bibliográfica Cubana issues also a news bulletin regarding its work, *Boletín informativo de la Bibliografía*. For both, Unesco provides a measure of direct sponsorship. Another joint regional enterprise is that of the Caribbean Commission, which instituted in 1951 the *Current Caribbean Bibliography*, a list of publications of the Caribbean territories of France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and the United States. It is published in Port-of-Spain, Trinidad; the latest to have appeared, Vol. 6, for the year 1956, in 1957.

The most comprehensive over-all continuing bibliographies of Latin America are published in the United States, with the collaboration of representatives in the countries concerned. The *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, an annotated guide representing a wide selection of significant new writing on Latin America in Spanish, Portuguese,

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French, English, and other languages, has been prepared annually by the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress since 1935 (published now by the University of Florida Press, Gainesville). Vol. 21, to appear in the summer of 1959, covers materials chiefly from the years 1955-58. The Hispanic Foundation, in collaboration with the Slavic Division, is also about to issue an interesting bibliography of some 3,000 titles, *Latin America in Soviet Writings, 1945-1958*. The Hispanic Institute at Columbia University includes in its quarterly *Revista hispánica moderna* (1934+) a "Bibliografía hispanoamericana," which is a selective classified list of books and periodical articles from the United States, Latin America, and Europe. The Pan American Union, secretariat of the Organization of American States, publishes an *Inter-American Review of Bibliography* (1951+, quarterly) which reports on Latin American bibliographical activities and carries a listing of current publications, and, specially useful, of the documents of the O.A.S. The Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union has for many years issued its important accessions list and a Bibliographic Series of lists on special topics relating to Latin America.

A country by country survey of bibliographical work in Latin America reveals interest and intent almost everywhere, with achievement somewhat lagging. The interest precedes Unesco, having been aroused in a series of Inter-American Conferences from the beginning of the century, and particularly at the Seventh Conference in Montevideo in 1933, which arranged for an Inter-American Conference on Bibliography in Mexico City in 1935. Since the entrance of Unesco on the scene, practically all countries of Central and South America report the setting up of National Commissions for Bibliography. National bibliographies have been long established in several countries, but are apt to be slow in appearing, so that it is not unusual for their records of current publications to be three or more years behind the times. Argentina's *Boletín bibliográfico nacional*, begun in 1937, is now issued by the Dirección Nacional de Cultura in Buenos Aires (no. 32, in 1954). Brazil has the *Boletín bibliográfico* of the Biblioteca Nacional in Rio de Janeiro, which made a fitful start from 1918-21, and has been reissued since 1951 (no. 6 in 1957). The *Bibliografia brasileira* of the Instituto Nacional do Livro, which is housed in the National Library, in part duplicates the *Boletín bibliográfico*, but is less comprehensive. In Cuba the *Anuario bibliográfico cubano*, carried on since 1937, is kept fairly current (latest for 1955).

Peru's *Anuario bibliográfico peruano* (1943+), edited by the librarian of the National Library, Alberto Tauro, is comprehensive but delayed (1951-52 volume, Lima, 1956). The Library of the University of Puerto Rico in Río Piedras published an *Anuario bibliográfico puertorriqueño* for the years 1948-52, but this is now suspended, as Puerto Rico is represented in the new *Bibliografía de Centro América y del Caribe*. The national bibliography of Uruguay, *Anuario bibliográfico uruguayo*, published by the Biblioteca Nacional in Montevideo with the legal deposit as base, came out for 1946 and 1947, then was suspended; however an active National Bibliographical Commission is now at work, and there are hopes for revival of the bibliography. The Biblioteca Nacional of Costa Rica in San José began its annual *Boletín bibliográfico* as a typed list in 1940; it is now a regular publication, the editions for 1954 and 1955 having been reported to Unesco in 1956.

These serials antedate the Unesco effort to encourage national bibliography, which has been operative in certain other enterprises. In Colombia the Instituto Caro y Cuervo in Bogotá, headquarters of the National Bibliographical Group, has produced an impressive *Anuario bibliográfico colombiano* compiled by R. P. Ortiz, covering the years 1951-56 (Bogotá, 1958. 334 p.). This was preceded by a useful monograph by G. G. Jaramillo, *Bibliografía de bibliografías colombianas* (Bogotá, 1954. 192 p.), prepared at the Biblioteca Nacional, and looking toward an undertaking in retrospective bibliography. El Salvador printed a short list of officially registered monographic publications at the end of the literary review of the Biblioteca Nacional, *Anaqueles* (latest in 1955). An important retrospective *Bibliografía salvadoreña*, containing entries for about 6,000 publications from or on El Salvador, 1830-1954, was published by the Library in 1957. For Mexico the official current record, "Bibliografía mexicana," which appears in the monthly periodical of the Ministry of Education, *El libro y el pueblo*, is rather less full than the lists in two trade journals from Mexico City, the *Boletín bibliográfico mexicano* or Porrúa Hnos, and *Mirador*. Venezuela has at present no national bibliography, and for record of current publication a booktrade journal, *Viejo y raro* (Caracas, 1955+) must be depended on. Chile and Paraguay have as yet no national bibliographies or even National Commissions, though in Chile the Biblioteca Nacional published an *Anuario de publicaciones periódicas chilenas* (Santiago, 1953. 79 p.) and is giving assistance to a Santiago trade list, *Revista bibliográfica chilena* (1956+). The

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national librarian of Haiti, Max Bissainthe, working with cooperation from various institutions including the Library of Congress, brought out in 1951 a huge retrospective *Dictionnaire de bibliographie haïtienne* (Washington, Scarecrow Press, 1951. 1,052 p.). In listing monographic material and periodicals he goes back before the independence of the island in 1804 to the beginnings of literature from or about Haiti and Santo Domingo, and for Haiti after 1804 through 1949. Supplements for the years 1950-56 have been published in *Conjonction*, the review of the Institut Français d'Haïti in Port-au-Prince (latest, July 1957).

Besides national bibliographies, the interest in scientific documentation has been fostered by Unesco. A Unesco Science Cooperation Office was established in Montevideo in 1946-47, and for three years prepared an extensive *List of Scientific Papers Published in Latin America* (Montevideo, 1947-50). Since then it has published a *Boletín*, a series of country surveys of Latin American scientific institutions and scientists, and special subject catalogs. In 1950 Mexico was given a contract by which its Secretariat and the Unesco Department of Technical Assistance organized a regional scientific documentation center for the Latin American countries, which began a *Boletín bibliográfico* in 1952. In 1954 Unesco withdrew, and the center was officially established as the Centro de Documentación Científica y Técnica de México; it now acts as a coordinating agency between scientific circles in Latin America and those in the rest of the world, receiving almost three thousand scientific and technical periodicals, which are abstracted in the monthly *Boletín*. There is also produced in Mexico a valuable *Bibliografía económica de México*, now published by the Departamento de Estudios Económicos of the Bank of Mexico. It had been begun by a scholar at the National School of Economics in the University of Mexico, José Bullejos, with *Diez años de literatura económica: bibliografía básica sobre la economía de México, 1943-1953* (México, Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas, 1955. 162 p.). The second volume, for 1954 and 1955, was brought out by the Bank of Mexico in 1957, and since then the publication has taken the form of a small quarterly list of books and articles in Spanish and English.

The Instituto Brasileiro de Bibliografia e Documentação in Rio de Janeiro, organized by a decree of February 27, 1954, brings out significant compilations, among them serial bibliographies of chemistry, mathematics and physics, and social sciences. The Brazilian National

Commission for Bibliography is reported by Unesco to be undertaking to standardize the form of entries for names of Brazilian authors—a consummation devoutly to be wished in a country where father's or mother's name is assumed at will. The Instituto Nacional de Estudos Pedagógicos issues a quarterly *Bibliografia brasileira de educação* (Rio de Janeiro, 1954+). A monographic publication by Waldemiro Bazzanella, *Estratificação e mobilidade social no Brasil, fontes bibliográficas*, published by the Centro Brasileiro de Pesquisas Educacionais (Rio de Janeiro, 1956, 116 p.), is another list of special interest for development studies.

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